The Nation

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The Week

The President's address to Congress repeats his policy of friendly coöperation with business which he announced seven weeks ago at the opening of Congress, and later in his speech on signing the banking bill. He assumes an "all but universal agreement in anticipation of our action"; speaks of the "atmosphere of accommodation and mutual understanding" as "a matter of sincere congratulation" which "ought to make our task very much less difficult," and asserts that "the antagonism between business and Government is over," and that, in squaring business methods to the law, "the Government and business men are ready to meet each other half-way." But what, then, of his explicit propositions? Some are concrete and positive; others more or less tentative in character. Interlocking directorates—described as such managing control of banking, railway, and industrial companies as must "result in making those who borrow and those who lend practically one and the same, those who sell and those who buy but the same persons trading with one another under different names and in different combinations"—are to be "effectually prohibited," though time is to be allowed in which to make the change "without inconvenience or confusion." Something will here depend on the full scope of the prohibitory law. Supervision by the Interstate Commerce Commission over new railway security issues is definitely advocated; and to this, we are inclined to think, even the railways will offer no objection.

Mr. Wilson's further proposal for a "more explicit legislative definition of the existing Anti-Trust law" must be judged in the light of what such a definition is to be. Ex-Senator Edmunds, a very eminent jurist and the real author of the Anti-Trust law, said two years ago of the plan for Congress to define more exactly its provisions:

> To whatever extent they change the law, they will spoil it. This for the simple reason that it does, in general terms, all that the Constitution permits it to do.

And further, on another occasion, that such an effort would involve the endless complexity of "a definition of the definition." The *Nation* has consistently maintained that a radical or sweeping amendment to the law would tend to weaken its force and confuse its application. The suggestion of a trade commission—not "empowered to make terms with monopoly or in any sort to assume control of business," but as an intermediary body for investigating and determining the actual status of a company, before invoking court procedure—is more obviously feasible. Difficulties will no doubt surround such an experiment, precisely as difficulties will surround the President's further distinct proposals for punishment of individuals rather than corporations when the law is violated, and for the absolute prohibition of the "holding company." "Personal guilt" can never be fairly established until what Mr. Wilson calls the debatable ground about the Anti-Trust law is conclusively removed.

We have thought it best to state thus frankly our feeling, not as to the merits of the President's new proposals, but as to their difficulties. It is not a programme to be hastily conceived and hurriedly placed upon the statute books, and, fortunately, no such purpose seems to be entertained at Washington. But there can be no reasonable doubt that a long step forward has been taken, through thus defining of the ends which should be, if possible, achieved by means of additional legislation, and by the new and friendly mutual attitude of Government and business.

Little attention has been paid to a change in the Senate rules which was made last Friday. It might seem a trifling affair, but is in reality of much importance; for it relates to that fundamental thing in the legislative procedure of the Senate, "unanimous consent." The change is this: hereafter no agreement by unanimous consent—for example, to file an order of business or to take a vote at a given time—shall be entered into unless there is a quorum of the Senate present. Moreover, even such an agreement can be rescinded later, if the Senate so votes. The effect is obvious. It will prevent tying up the Senate by one of those sly manœuvres such as compelled a vote on the Hetch-Hetchy bill on a fixed day. Clever managers in the Senate have been in the habit of watching their chance, when only eight or ten Senators were in their seats, and obtaining unanimous agreement that this, that, or the other thing should be done at a future date, and then this agreement instantly became as a law of the Medes and Persians which altereth not. Willy nilly, the whole Senate had to do what a half-dozen Senators had agreed that it must do. That little trick cannot be played again.

The Chairman of the House Committee on Post Offices and Post Roads makes a gallant defence of the spoils rider to the Post Office Appropriation bill. If his argument has not much to commend it from the point of view of ordinary reason or practical good sense, it certainly has the merit of quite extraordinary elevation of thought. To the common mind, the question whether the 2,400 assistant postmasters are to remain under the rules of the competitive system or not does not touch the foundations of the Government, nor would it be thought to be intimately related to the methods by which we elect our Representatives and Senators or the President of the United States. But Mr. Moon takes a higher and broader view. Here is the picture that is drawn by his statesmanlike vision:

> Not a single representative of the Federal Government, save the members of the House, and, by recent amendment, the Senators, is chosen by the American people at the ballot box. Your President is chosen by the Electoral College. . . . If you wanted to make a monarchy of this republic, all you would have to do would be to apply the civil service to Congress, the President, and his Cabinet.

Thus that remote and short-lived past when the Electoral College was supposed to exercise a real choice in the naming of the President, receives in the Tennessee Representative's imagination the significance of an important present reality; and he dips into a future of which no man has dreamed, to conjure up a state of things when members of Con-

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gress and of the Cabinet may be chosen by competitive examination. The spoils doctrine is hard pressed indeed if it finds itself obliged to fly to such distant realms in search of arguments in its support.

The action of the Senate Committee in seating Blair Lee, of Maryland, popularly elected, at the same time that it rejected the credentials of Frank P. Glass, of Alabama, appointed by the Governor, puts a common-sense construction upon the Seventeenth Amendment. It is decided that the amendment is self-executing, and that State legislation to make effective the direct election of Senators is unnecessary. The contrast between the two decisions points the implied rebuke to Gov. O'Neal, of Alabama. His State has nothing but the Governor's obstinacy to thank for the fact that it has so long remained with but one representative in the Senate. He might have convened the Alabama Legislature some months ago, to call and regulate the Senatorial election; or he might, as Gov. Goldsborough, of Maryland, has done, have issued writs of election on his own authority. Instead, in the face of general State sentiment and of the plainest warnings conveyed from unofficial sources, Gov. O'Neal chose to attempt filling by appointment Senator Johnston's old seat; and when his first candidate surrendered these dubious credentials, just in time to escape the Senate Committee's decision, stubbornly appointed another. It is gratifying that the Committee's action upon a matter of principle was decisively without regard for party lines.

How unavailing with respect to their ostensible end "pork barrel" river and harbor bills can be, is brought home to Louisiana by a decision of the Interstate Commerce Commission that Red River, except for a short distance from its mouth, is no longer a "navigable stream," and that, consequently, railways may fix their rates without reference to any possible river competition in its territory. Citizens of Louisiana may be excused for being surprised at this ruling, for as much as $3,000,000 has been spent by the Federal Government upon the river which the Commission now rejects. But what was the result of this expenditure? According to the New Orleans *Item*, it produced in a single year the stupendous commerce of one passenger and sixty-eight tons of freight upon the upper reaches of the river. Yet "the Red River ought to be a busy highway of commerce. . . . There ought to be lines of tank barges . . . cotton boats . . . packet boats." For these, the "pork barrel" way has been found a failure. The *Item* urges upon the disappointed inhabitants of the Red River district support of the idea in the Newlands "river regulation" bill, which looks towards cooperation between Federal and local authorities, not in merely spending money upon streams, but in making them navigable.

As vicious a bit of military legislation as has appeared in a quarter century comes up again in the report that the Militia Pay bill lobby has obtained the Administration's support. It is erroneously stated in certain newspapers that it is to supplant the bill providing for the organization of volunteers at the outbreak of war. That is, of course, not possible. The Militia Pay bill is a raid on the Treasury, pure and simple, on behalf of the existing National Guard, and does not affect the raising of troops not now existing. For a century and more our State troops have drilled without pay; the plan is now to get the Federal Treasury to reward them for appearing at the armories once or twice a week, the excuse being that readiness to serve the State is so wanting that men must be paid to do what has been done cheerfully and willingly since the foundation of the Republic. This assertion is false on its face and ought to be resented. Never, for instance, has militia duty been so well and so seriously performed as in some of our States today. Indeed, the bill is open to suspicion, or ought to be, because it is urged by the men who will *profit* pecuniarily by it; it is special legislation for them.

The great intellectual city of Boston is entitled to the widest condolence. Its voters have chosen Congressman James M. Curley as Mayor. It was a non-partisan election, the only candidates being two Democrats, and the less desirable one was elected. Some years ago the new Mayor of Boston spent a couple of months in jail for impersonating another at a civil-service examination. This act of pure kindliness and good will the voters of Boston do not seem ever to have held up against him; was it not a harmless bit of unselfish friendliness? Boston's plight is extraordinarily suggestive of New York's in the days when Grant and Gilroy and similar tools of Croker ruled the city. It is the same element in the population which rules Boston to-day, and this despite the modern charter which was expected to divorce the city from partisan or factional politics through an ideal ballot and an election remote from any State or national issue. The apathy with which the contest between Kenny and Curley has been followed by the general public is also strongly suggestive of the condition of public opinion in New York about 1890.

Whatever may be the chance that the bill offered by Mr. Works to repeal the Hetch-Hetchy grant will receive serious consideration in Congress, the California Representative did right in introducing it. He gives a compact summary of his reasons for doing so. Of these, the first is that "the bill granting the right of way was passed without any adequate investigation and under a complete misunderstanding and misapprehension of the facts." That it was passed without adequate investigation is a simple matter of fact; that it was passed "under a complete misunderstanding and misapprehension" may of course be disputed. And when we say that there was no adequate investigation we are by no means unmindful of the somewhat elaborate report of the House Committee; for it is impossible to read that report with care and not find that it utterly fails to meet the questions at issue, and that it is pervaded throughout with the spirit of the advocate instead of that of the judge. Although a considerable amount of time intervened between the introduction of the bill in the House and its passage by the Senate, yet that passage took place under a hasty agreement as to the date of final action. What happened in this case was what happens so generally when the question of the sacrifice of public parks or the like is at issue. The interests eager for acquisition get in their work before the slow process of accumulating vigorous opposition has time to become effective.

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In a speech recently made in the Senate by Mr. Walsh, of Montana, there is a great deal about a Mr. Perkins, who, according to testimony cited by the Senator, played a conspicuous part in preventing the building of a railway in Alaska some years ago by private capital. Nor is it possible to ascribe this conduct on Mr. Perkins's part to any dislike to the exploitation of Alaskan opportunities by capitalistic interests, for according to the testimony the reason assigned by Mr. Perkins for the refusal of the Morgan interests to countenance the building of the railway was that the Guggenheims objected to it as an invasion of their own preserves. And as Mr. Perkins is quoted in the testimony as using the first person plural in this connection—thus, "we could not allow a railroad to be built through the Susitna Valley into the Tamana"—it will be seen that the Mr. Perkins in question is none other than George W. Perkins, the eminent Progressive. Some persons may, in their haste, be inclined to pass an unkind judgment on him for what looks like sad inconsistency; but they should remember that all this alleged sympathetic activity in behalf of the wicked Guggenheims occurred long before the day on which Mr. Perkins awakened to the necessity of making this country a fit place for his children to live in.

For the State distribution of textbooks, as a natural step in the programme of making education free, something may be said; but State entrance into the publishing business is a different matter. California's experience was denounced two years ago by the San Francisco *Chronicle* on the ground that "books printed at the State printery and sold at cost carry much higher prices than the same books are sold for in other States." She has now, during 1913, according to the State Printer, distributed 1,461,623 books at a cost of $316,000, or an average of about 22 cents each. This includes $87,371.52 paid in royalties to textbook companies and individuals. Mr. Charles H. Thurber, joining with certain newspapers in attacking the plan, has quoted figures of the United States Commissioner of Education to show that the average expenditure throughout the country is slightly above 60 cents *per pupil* annually. California will therefore have to show that not more than three books per pupil are consumed each year. It should seem this could be done, but it must be remembered that the State-published books are admittedly flimsier than the old ones, and the purchase of some by the pupils ought to be encouraged. The matter is of growing national interest, for Kansas has apparently followed California, and other Western States are contemplating the step. Considerations other than economy must be taken into account, for in the development of the complex art of textbook-making much may be claimed for private competition and enterprise.

"The extent to which he's winking at this moment!" whispered Caleb to his daughter. "Oh, my gracious!"

Very much after the same manner in which Tackleton the toy-merchant "winked" at Caleb Plummer and his blind daughter in "The Cricket on the Hearth," the Powers are now laughing at our Mexican policy. Congressman Gillett is the latest critic to voice the impassioned complaint that our relations with Mexico have made this nation the laughing-stock of the world. Everybody is doing it. The German Foreign Office positively rolls with laughter as it announces its intention to do absolutely nothing in Mexico that will be displeasing to Mr. Wilson. Peals of Gallic cachinnation ring out as Paris once more declares that it will in all ways follow our leadership with regard to Mexico. Great Britain, with tears of mirth running down its face, makes it known that the British Minister at Mexico City, whom we do not like, will be removed from Mexico City. The London *Times*, grinning like a Cheshire cat, declares that "President Wilson has enjoyed, and apparently will continue to enjoy, complete freedom from anything which can be called diplomatic pressure from other Powers." Poor Mr. Wilson; who is thus set up as a laughing-stock for every diplomat from China to Peru! Is his cup of shame to be filled when Huerta, laughing like mad, goes scuttling out of Mexico City?

The wide approval in Canada of the Government's announcement that it would temporarily abandon the bill for a $35,000,000 naval appropriation marks a triumph of popular sentiment. For one thing, the opening of Parliament sees the country anxious to deal with fiscal matters, the tariff, and the redistribution of seats in the House; for another, every effort to arouse enthusiasm for an Imperial navy, as by the visit of the battle-cruiser New Zealand, has signally failed. The Canadian people have not opposed the principle of an Imperial contribution, but by direct or indirect obstruction they have been glad to avoid the reality. Premier Borden's insistence last session upon an emergency bill for three Dreadnoughts was blocked by the Liberals on the ground that it placed the ships under Admiralty control, when both parties had declared in 1909 for control by the Parliament of Canada. But Canada has very complacently suffered the quarrel over the manner of contributing to suspend indefinitely the contribution itself. Papers like the Conservative Toronto *Globe* regard the present shelving of the Dreadnought programme as unavoidable in the light of the new Anglo-German harmony; it certainly relieves Mr. Borden of a great embarrassment as he advances to meet other very troublesome legislative questions.

The end of the Leeds strike has been long in sight, but that fact will not lessen British gratification at the unconditional surrender of the municipal employees. In part this is due to the sympathy evoked by the Leeds citizens, who manned the street railways, the gas and electric works, and other public utilities the moment the workmen stepped out; in part to the lesson afforded in the workings of Socialistic theory. As in the threatened Post Office strike, as in the South African railway strike, the workers were directly employed by the public; and they ought to have been peculiarly content with their position. They were better paid than those doing similar work in private employ, and—barring gross misconduct—were sure of their places for life. The whole affair is an interesting document in its bearing on the Socialist plea for universal Governmental employment. The crushing of the strike is especially pleasing in that the employees conspired to walk out so suddenly and unexpectedly as to inflict the greatest possible inconvenience upon the city; it is a victory of united public opinion over a kind of attempted extortion.

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BRYAN AND WILSON.

Certain newspapers have been gravely announcing the speedy outbreak of a "war" between President Wilson and Secretary Bryan. It might come next week, or it might come next month, but come it must. The necessary preliminaries to hostilities have been duly noted. There have been differences and misunderstandings. The neat touch of the discovery by Mr. Bryan's friends of a "conspiracy" against him has not been lacking. Ere long, we are assured, a full-fledged *casus belli* will appear, and then the cruel war will begin. But if it takes two to make a quarrel, it takes at least two to make a war; and it might be well for our military prophets to stop and ask what possible motive Mr. Wilson can have for making war on Mr. Bryan. Put the Secretary aside, if you please, as a being of stratagems and treasons, but ask how the case stands with the President. Look at the relations of the two men, not as we may fancy they ought to be, but as they in fact are; consider, too, what are the actual services which Mr. Bryan has rendered and is rendering the President; the question is simply whether Mr. Wilson has any reason for regretting that he asked Mr. Bryan into his Cabinet, or for wishing him out of it to-day.

The plain and hard fact is that Mr. Bryan, as a member of the Administration, has been to the President a political asset of enormous value. If any doubt still lingers in anybody's mind that Woodrow Wilson is a skilful politician, it would disappear after a study of the way in which he has annexed and utilized Mr. Bryan, at the same time that he has done him high honor. It was not a question of obligations to Mr. Bryan, or of paying political debts. Those might or might not have been assumed to exist. But merely on the supposition that President Wilson had great measures of constructive legislation at heart, it is now clear that he could not have chosen a better aide in that work than Mr. Bryan.

This may seem a dark saying. But the facts throw light upon it. No one who has carefully followed the course of the tariff bill, and more especially the currency bill, through Congress can have failed to see what we mean—namely, that, given the conditions in the House and Senate, particularly in the House, President Wilson could not have got elsewhere the effective assistance which he has had from Mr. Bryan. This lay not so much in what the latter did as in what he prevented. It is a common remark about the currency bill, for example, that the great wonder is, not that so much which is good was got into it, but that so much which is bad was kept out of it. Congressmen were not lacking who wanted to stuff the bad things in. In the large body of Democrats carried to Washington on the flood of 1912 there was a considerable sprinkling of wild-eyed men. They were burning with desires to do something startling against the Money Trust and other monsters, and, if they had not been held in check by somebody, would have done their best to bedevil the currency bill. Who did most to hold them in check? William J. Bryan. This is the answer which the coolest observers at Washington make. Not that Bryan made himself conspicuous in laboring for the currency bill. He gave it his blessing, but he did not speak for it; certainly he did not lobby for it; there are those who say that he did not even understand it. But quietly and often indirectly, he exerted a powerful influence in maintaining its best features intact. He did it by discouraging the amending mania of some of the ogre-hunters in the House. And the very fact that he, the original champion of the people against the bankers and Wall Street, stood for a sound currency bill, undoubtedly brought many a fire-eater into line. If Bryan declared that the measure was all right, it was not for them to say him nay. But what they thought deep down in their hearts, and what they would infallibly have sought to do, had they not been held in leash, may be inferred from the things some of them are saying now. Thus Representative Henry is railing at Carter Glass as a tool of the bankers; and Senator La Follette affirms that the currency bill is a complete surrender to the Money Power. Now we only say that if Mr. Bryan was able greatly to aid the President in subduing the raging of these heathen, then he did him a high political service. It is one that by itself would justify his selection for the Cabinet; and this sort of influence, if it is to be continued, is one that the President has every motive for wishing on his side. When Mr. Bryan ceases to be a faithful adjutant of Mr. Wilson in procuring the passage of good laws, it will be time to talk about a "war" between the two.

It is said, we know, that the President is mortified at the ridicule which has been poured upon his Secretary of State. And there have been many funny newspaper stories about the relations of Mr. Bryan to the foreign diplomats in Washington. No doubt, the latter have their little jokes about Mr. Bryan's unconventional ways, and his unconscious importation of Nebraska methods into the State Department; but at bottom they have, in fact, a genuine liking for the man. He sincerely desires to be at peace with all the world, and that makes their tasks easier; while they have come to believe him absolutely candid in all that he says to them. This may be a novelty in diplomacy, but the foreign Ambassadors and Ministers do not find it unpleasing. There is certainly no friction in that quarter. And if there is any criticism, well or ill grounded, of Mr. Bryan's policy in Mexico or elsewhere, the sufficient answer—so far as relates to any supposed coolness between the President and his Secretary of State—is that Mr. Wilson is ultimately responsible for it all, and must shoulder it all.

All told, we are convinced that a political realist, intent upon seeing the facts as they are, could not help concluding that Mr. Bryan has been of very great usefulness to President Wilson. This may be admitted without retracting a single word about Mr. Bryan's flightiness or unsoundness in some matters. All that needs to be insisted upon is that, under the circumstances in Congress, and with Mr. Bryan's honorable view of his duty to be in all respects loyal to the chief under whom he has taken office, he has been of such demonstrable value to the President, in carrying out his policies, that the talk of Mr. Wilson's being about to open a war on Bryan is mid-winter madness.

THE COST OF MANIFEST DESTINY.

A brief dispatch from Sofia gives us an idea of what the people of the Balkans have paid for the victories of the Christian nations of the peninsula over Turkey, and over each other. The figures as they stand on their face are staggering. And when all necessary deductions and explanations have been made

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the result is still one which can only leave the heart sick under the burden of human waste through human cruelty. A census of the Bulgarian territories acquired by conquest in the war against Turkey shows that the male population of Bulgarian Macedonia was reduced in the course of hostilities from 175,000 to 42,500. In Bulgarian Thrace there are 225,000 male survivors out of a population of 494,000. In the district of Mustapha Pasha to the north of Adrianople, and close to the old Bulgarian frontier, 4,000 men and boys remain out of a total of 33,000. These figures are only for Bulgaria. The complete account must take notice of what happened in the territories won by Greece from Bulgaria along the Ægean coast, what happened in Servian Macedonia, and in Albania. The figures are so appalling that the mind can only seek refuge in the feeling that they cannot be true.

One correction of these statistics of depopulation does suggest itself. The fighting in the Balkans was accompanied by a migration of the inhabitants. Especially in Thrace the Mohammedan villagers retreated before the victorious Bulgarian army in numbers that amounted almost to a *Völkerwanderung*. Newspaper correspondents have vividly described this retreat of the Ottoman nation back into Asia, as it has been characterized in somewhat exaggerated terms. So, too, in that part of Macedonia which has now fallen to Greece the inhabitants abandoned their homes according as the fortunes of war shifted. When the Bulgarians first poured down towards the Ægean, a large part of the Greek population, mindful of old racial feuds, took refuge within the Greek sphere of influence. Later, when the murderous war between the allies broke out and the Greek armies forced the Bulgarian lines backward, it was the turn of the Bulgarian inhabitants to flee. But, on the other hand, such migrations must have been of entire families. Only in rare instances is it believable that the men of the family would escape and leave women and children to their fate. And the figures we have quoted are of a decrease in the male population only. Evidently it is this that has been the salient feature; and a large part, therefore, of the enormous loss recorded must be ascribed to actual slaughter.

When the war between Turkey and the allies broke out it was inevitable that the sympathies of the civilized world should be with the Balkan nationalities. There were those who may have regretted that the war should have come at a time when the Turkish nation was entering upon the road of constitutionalism and modern progress. A great experiment was spoiled; an experiment that would have shown whether the non-European races have within themselves the capacity for modern civilization, or whether it is the fate of two-thirds of the human race to succumb ultimately to Occidental domination. But even regret for the frustration of so important a test in human capacities could not swing the balance of sympathy against the Balkan allies. After all, they were the representatives of the higher civilization. The war might be costly, but the price would not be an excessive one to pay for ridding Europe once for all of the blight of Ottoman rule. The argument was frequently brought forward that better one sharp blood-letting operation and a cure than the slow process of slaughter and oppression under which the Christian subjects of Turkey in Macedonia were agonizing. It was the inevitable price that must be paid for civilization. It was an unavoidable price, if the peoples of the Balkans were to realize their destiny.

Yet the horrible fact stands out that the price which has been paid by the Balkan peoples in appalling loss of life, in the indescribable misery of the women and children who were left behind, was paid only in minor part for the triumph of European civilization over the Turk. In greater measure the dreadful saturnalia of murder and rape was the price paid for the fierce jealousies that arrayed nations of the same creed and the same race against one another. There is no getting away from the evidence that the misery inflicted by Bulgarian and Turkish armies on the villagers of opposite faith hardly measures up to the play of bestial passions that broke loose when Christian nations and allies flew at one another's throats. It was then no longer a struggle between a higher and a lower civilization. It was a ferocious grapple for territory, harbors, and revenue. And if Turkey has been reduced to comparative impotence in Europe (though even now the peril of war between Turkey and Greece is acutely felt), there has arisen in place of the old Balkan problem a Balkan problem more threatening than the old. The next ten or twenty years in Bulgaria are bound to be a period of savage hatred for Servia and Greece, a period of preparation for the day of vengeance. Civilization in the Balkans will take the form of inflated standing armies, naval expansion programmes, and an exhausted populace crushed under the burden of taxes.

There is a lesson in the Balkans for our own cheerful people who speak lightheartedly of armed intervention in Mexico on these same grounds of national dignity and destiny. Pressing indeed must be the destiny that would drive a nation into war with its attendant horrors, the loss of life, the economic waste, the hatreds engendered, the menacing problems stored up for our children to toil with and to "settle" in their turn at fearful cost. Man's astounding ability to forget is exemplified in the readiness with which we forget, and shall probably continue to forget, what war means. To the unhappy people of the Balkans has been given the rôle of serving as a reminder.

A REAL SOCIAL EVIL TREATISE.

From the pen of Abraham Flexner has come the second notable volume in the series of four undertaken by Mr. John D. Rockefeller, jr.'s, Bureau of Social Hygiene, entitled "Prostitution in Europe." Its publication is a noteworthy service. In the first place, it fills a great scientific need in straightforward, non-technical form. For years past the desirability of such a study has been manifest; no modern book covered this field with any genuine authority. To understand anything about the subject, it was necessary to read a great amount of medical literature and numerous detailed studies of what is the most difficult of all social problems. The result has been that there has been the loosest sort of talk, not only in the public press, but by men in public life. Basing their beliefs on hearsay, or the most superficial examination, many have inveighed against American methods by the easy assertion that the European policy of toleration and sanitation was the best. These statements were difficult to refute, because of the lack of material at once accessible and scientific.

Hereafter there will be no difficulty

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on that score. Mr. Flexner was selected for the task because he was a trained investigator, skilled in analysis and familiar with social and educational problems. Never having taken up this evil before, he brought to it an open mind, free from prepossessions, a fact which makes the results of his inquiry particularly valuable. Let it be said at once that those who have had a patent remedy for this social sore, like the Single Taxers and those Woman Suffragists who feel that the enfranchisement of women will end it all by the substitution of laws jointly made by men and women for those made by men alone, will obtain little satisfaction from this volume. While its note is distinctly hopeful, Mr. Flexner presents no magic remedy or cure. He has merely analyzed the problem, investigated supply and demand and the relation of the evil to the law and to public order, and has summarized at the end the outcome of all this European experience. If he finds prostitution far more extensive than is popularly supposed, he has discovered, on the other hand, like every other conscientious observer, new currents and tendencies, like those in our own country, which give ground for belief that the era of intelligent dealing with the problem is at hand. At last we are beginning, by such works as this and the studies of the various vice commissions in American cities, to know the problem as it really is.

To our mind, the greatest cause for thankfulness is that Mr. Flexner has dealt a shrewd blow to the theory that toleration, official approval, and medical inspection form the really scientific method of dealing with prostitution. They are nothing of the kind. Aside from the fact that this means government partnership with vice, and inevitable moral deterioration of supervising officials, Mr. Flexner finds that regulation is losing ground everywhere; its total abolition has been recommended in France by a special commission, whfle 48 out of 162 German cities have dispensed with it. The truth is that regulation never regulates, and medical control never controls. Besides offending all decency, the medical examinations are often anything but scientifically conducted, and are usually so superficial as to be worthless, as the spread of disease certifies. For the survival of regulation, Mr. Flexner declares, ignorance, tradition, misinformation, and baser motives are responsible. The officials connected with it naturally fight for their places. As for the morals police of Europe, they are in a position to sell favors, exemptions, and privileges, and, as W. T. Stead conclusively showed, are forever tempted to become procurers and abettors of the illegal system which the Government authorizes them to control. Particularly is Mr. Flexner impressed with the fact that wherever there is one registered fallen woman there are three unregistered.

Many another myth besides that of regulation does Mr. Flexner expose. The alleged brief life of the prostitute; the alleged benefit to the streets where there is toleration; the alleged relationship of economic necessity to the entering on immoral practices, upon all of these he sheds surprising light that will not gratify, among others, those who a few months ago were shrieking that a minimum wage law is the one thing needful to protect the virtue of women-workers. But he does admit the almost universal unchastity of European men. What, then, is his conclusion as to the whole problem abroad? It is that prostitution is a "modifiable phenomenon"; that summary repression offers little hope—it merely "penalizes an accomplished fact"—and is what the physicians call "symptomatic treatment," since it does not cure the disease. Yet he believes that intelligent study and scientific repression would vastly decrease human devastation, lessen disease, and render the demoralization of the woman "less complete, less overwhelming, less irretrievable"; surely very important gains, particularly if all this is done under "well-drawn, well-codified, well-executed laws." As for the rest, a slow process of social regeneration alone will bring the better day. As Mr. Flexner puts it:

> Further achievement depends upon alterations in the constitution of society and its component parts. In so far as prostitution is the outcome of ignorance, laws and police are powerless; only knowledge will aid. In so far as prostitution is the outcome of mental or moral defect, laws and police are powerless; only the intelligent guardianship of the State will avail. In so far as prostitution is the outcome of natural impulses denied a legitimate expression, only a rationalized social life will really forestall it. In so far as prostitution is due to alcohol, to illegitimacy, to broken homes, to bad homes, to low wages, to wretched industrial conditions—to any or all of the particular phenomena respecting which the modern conscience is becoming sensitive—only a transformation wrought by education, religion, science, sanitation, enlightened and far-reaching statesmanship can effect a cure. . . . Sooner or later, it [civilization] must fling down the gauntlet to the whole horrible thing. This will be the real contest—a contest that will tax the courage, the self-denial, the faith, the resources of humanity to their uttermost.

THE FIRST GARDEN CITY.

Just ten years after the founding of Garden City, or Letchworth, in England there appears a heavy volume, by C. B. Purdom, tracing its development. The tale unfolded is extraordinary. The original scheme was so goldenly idealistic; it was seized upon with such Utopian zeal, by men inspired half by Mill's social ideas and half by Morris's artistic theories; its growth to reality has been so swift, and yet so substantial. It is only twelve years since Ebenezer Howard's book, "Garden Cities of To-morrow," was laughed at by the *Times* as visionary. To-day Letchworth represents a corporation worth millions of pounds, stretching its 2,000 homes, factories, and workshops over three parishes, and inhabited by 10,000 loyal citizens, employed in works drawn from all over the United Kingdom, and even the United States. Mr. Purdom's sketch was itself printed there, in J. M. Dent & Sons' publishing plant. Every main feature of Ebenezer Howard's plan for organizing in rural surroundings a workman's city, to achieve "a healthy, natural, and economic combination of town and country life," and "to find for our industrial population work at higher wages, at more regular employment, and under healthier surroundings," has been realized.

The significance of Garden City to the outside world is as an attempt to revive the small town under twentieth-century industrial conditions. It is a mistake to think of it as a municipal or corporation enterprise, for it has been prosecuted by an association of private citizens. Nor is it to be confused with "garden suburbs," or extensions, often unwise, of existing cities. Were it this, it would only be of a kind with work long done in Germany, and now carried on in nearly every civilized land. Its idea is the daring one of building a new town, in the shortest time compatible with normal growth, "right out in the open"; a town with its own parks

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and open spaces, its own agricultural belt, its own schools, theatres, and public utilities. Letchworth is itself situated on an estate of 4,500 acres, thirty-five miles from London, purchased by the Garden City Company with a subscribed capital of $1,500,000. The company lets building sites, with reservations for parks; builds and owns the roads, gas and electric plants, and water system; and enforces regulations on the height, construction, and artistic quality of all buildings. It thus shares in the government with the regularly constituted local bodies, to which, as its capital is paid in, it will gradually surrender its functions. It is assiduous in promoting communal activity and the immigration of proper industries. Their testimonials, from motor factory to pottery works, are gathered into the volume. The abundance of light and room for workshops, the healthy living conditions for the workmen, the low rents and water and lighting rates, are enumerated as making for a better class of employees, while the smallness of the town gives the staff cohesion. After Letchworth attains a certain size, further growth is to be discouraged, mainly by the establishment of rival Garden Cities elsewhere.

The spontaneity of Letchworth's growth is proof of the need it filled, a need that is felt in every populous industrial land. Seemingly, it required only the book to create the company, and the company to call the town into being; in reality it demanded a long train of conditions and circumstances. A main factor in its success has been its proximity to London; Londoners of means have invested in it, scores of trains a day carry its products to the metropolis, its people still feel a throbbing connection with the centre of English life. It should give an impulse to nothing so much as official city planning. "So far," writes Mr. Purdom, "we have seen in the new countries only a repetition of many of the follies committed in nineteenth-century Europe. In Canada, in Australasia, in New Zealand there are opportunities for building fine cities that, not in magnificence, but in their simple decent order, may secure . . . health and well-being, and be the envy of the world." Similarly, the factors that gave Letchworth its astounding development are but the factors that induce our corporations to build model employees' villages, of which there are scores in the United States and Canada alone.

This does not rob the individualism behind the Garden City plan of certain peculiar merits. The government of a new community by its founders and members should be at once more practical, and touched by higher ideals, than a government by outside authority. The choice of a fresh site, the divorce from existent cities, give scope for the expression of a real corporate personality. The circumstances of its organization, moreover, assist subsequent coöperation among residents. Letchworth has proved an inviting field for the British Co-operative Wholesale Society, which furnishes all the commodities of life at cost. Mr. Howard points out that it should also offer ground for many industrial enterprises carried on by combinations of workers in the interests of workers. Men who have planned and built for themselves a better living environment are a ready soil for other helpful social reforms.

"STIMULATING."

To-day the word is common currency, but one imagines it is the book-reviewers of a certain well-recognized class who popularized it. It supplied a long-felt want. Since pragmatism carried the day it has obviously been "unmodern" to speak of a thing or a book as being merely right or wrong, good or bad, beautiful or ugly. Literature, like the world, has become divided into books that tell the facts and books that are stimulating, books that uphold the ideal of moral goodness and books that are stimulating, books that concern themselves with the beautiful and books that are stimulating. It is only an old-fashioned book-reviewer who will point out that when a writer speaks on page 22 of the battle of Waterloo as won by Wellington and on page 54 ascribes the victory to Blücher, he must be wrong either in the one case or in the other. The modern book-reviewer will find the discrepancy merely stimulating. And if the author gives evident signs of being quite out of touch with the literature on the Napoleonic wars, and occasionally spells the name "Blutcher," he is more stimulating than ever. This is not mere kindliness of criticism. It is an entirely new conception of criticism, which finds no use for the old definite forms of appraisal. It refuses to enter into sharp distinctions between the sheep and the goats. In the modern vernacular, the sheep are "cautious" or "conservative" and the goats are stimulating.

There is a companion word: "suggestive." When a statement is obviously false, it is stimulating. When a statement has no meaning whatever, it is suggestive. To say that Queen Isabella was a pioneer of feminism when she sent Columbus on his voyage to the west, is stimulating. To write: "Ignorance is the *advocatus diaboli* in the swirl of cosmic evolution," is suggestive. Fortunate the book—and a great many books are fortunate nowadays—which lends itself to characterization as being both stimulating and suggestive! To say that the Fathers of the Constitution were a pack of rum-selling and slave-catching rascals is stimulating. To say that the Fathers of the Constitution were a body of unpractical idealists is also stimulating. It is the beauty of the new criticism that the two books which say these two precisely opposite things may be equally stimulating. But if the writer, after describing the Fathers of the Constitution as saints or blackguards, as the case may be, goes on to say that we are all the creatures of environment, and that consequently the recall of judges is imperatively necessary, he has met the requirements of criticism completely. Either as a stimulant or as a suggestive force he is a man to be reckoned with.

Stimulating to what? Suggestive of what? Heaven only knows. It is true that one can easily imagine how the sociological treatise which the up-to-date critic finds stimulating might stimulate the scholar brought up in the older tradition of truth and falsehood to a fit of apoplexy. One can imagine how the ordinary stimulating book and lecture and interview on cancer cures and eugenics and criminology would stimulate the true scientist to alternate rage and despair. But evidently that cannot be what the reviewer means. Does he mean, then, that the reading of one stimulating book stimulates the reader to the reading of another book equally stimulating? That is undoubtedly true. The flood of books which have eschewed the older methods of patient research, careful thought, and logical presentation, for the methods of stimulative authorship, is sufficient testimony on that point. The difficulties of authorship have, of course, been almost done away with by substituting stimulation for reason and fact. Only that there has arisen another difficulty. There is the inevitable law that stimulation, to remain effective, requires a constantly increasing dosage. And it is not every one, after all, that can keep on being more and more stimulating till we reach the tremendous hypodermic thrust of the stimulating Cubist and Futurist.

Fortunately, the men who are doing the serious work of the world in the sciences and the arts—and in criticism—are not particularly concerned with the ordinary book-reviewer's opinion. They are content to have their books described as cautious or conservative or even stodgy, by comparison with the stimulating writers who are busy turning out new worlds and new moralities and new artistic conceptions while you wait. Or they may even find the situation stimulating. The babel of ignorant talk and senseless talk, the revolutionary formulas that roll so smoothly off the tongue, the welter of loose thinking and unshaped speech, can only stimulate the honest worker to tighten his lips and bend over his desk or his test-tubes a little more determinedly. He can afford to wait. Time will have its toll of the stimulators and the suggesters and the provocators and the various dispensers of the various other

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kinds of mental debauchery. Mr. Kipling's intuition was right. It is only in the other world that the honest workmen are allowed to splash at ten-league canvases with brushes of comet's hair. In this world the good workmen are content with humbler tasks. They are satisfied to leave the ten-league canvases and the ethereal brushes to the stimulators.

PUBLIC OPINION AND POPULAR GOVERNMENT.

OXFORD, January 7.

Mr. Lowell's "Governments and Parties in Continental Europe" is for Englishmen the best and the most trustworthy authority with regard to Continental constitutionalism. His "Government of England" is by far the most complete, as it is also by far the best, description of the English Constitution as it now exists and works. He and Bryce are, in short, for the whole English-speaking world the leading constitutionalists of the day; but I venture with some confidence to predict that Mr. Lowell's latest book,* when it has once become well known to English readers, will add a good deal to its author's already high and well-acquired reputation. The book looks at first sight like a course of lectures delivered some years ago to the students at Johns Hopkins University. But it is something much rarer than a good course of lectures addressed to intelligent youths. It is, in truth, the work of a constitutional jurist who explores with care and elucidates with success some of the many fundamental problems presented by the whole system of modern popular government as it is understood in the United States and in England. It shows that the writer of the book may be placed nearly on a level—and no greater praise can be given to any man—with Bagehot. The two writers are in some respects very unlike one another, yet they both have one quality in common: they both can take up old and well-worn questions and succeed in putting the inquiries with which they deal in a new light, and in a light gained, not by the use of paradox, but by the enunciation of plain though forgotten truths. My object in this letter is to justify my high estimate of "Public Opinion and Popular Government." It is impossible for me to follow out many of the most interesting suggestions with which Mr. Lowell supplies his readers. I shall therefore vindicate the soundness of my literary judgment by dwelling only upon two among the leading characteristics of a highly interesting book.

The first among the notable traits of this essay is that it contains a new and original analysis of the nature of public opinion.

The term "public opinion" is so familiar to us all that we feel astounded that it should need explanation. We fall into the common error of confounding familiarity with knowledge, yet the simple truth is that the things, and above all the ideas, to which we are used, are just the things which not one man in ten thousand understands; and this for the obvious reason that he never even tries to understand them. He takes them, if we may use the expression, as "matters of course." Yet from the moment that we are asked, as we are by our author, what it is that we mean by the word "public" as employed in the term "public opinion," or by the word "opinion" as forming part of the same term, we feel first surprised at the inquiry, and then acknowledge to ourselves that we have not got an answer thereto ready to hand. Let us now consider the sort of information, or, rather, suggestions, which our teacher supplies to hesitating and puzzled pupils, be they hearers or readers. He shows us that the word "public," when used, at any rate, to designate the kind of opinion which is supposed by most of us to be supreme in every democratic state, is certainly by no means easy to define. It certainly does not mean necessarily the opinion of a majority. To take an example suggested by Mr. Lowell, it would have been ridiculous to say at the outbreak of the War of Secession, that either the opinion of Southern Seceders or of Northern Federalists was the public opinion of the United States. The plain statement of the case is that there were two opinions or beliefs diametrically opposed, one of which prevailed for the most part throughout the Northern States, and the other of which prevailed in the Southern States, and neither of which could fairly be called the public opinion of the United States as a whole. It is again clear that public opinion does not require unanimity. If the public opinion, say, of France was an opinion entertained by every French citizen, we should soon find that in the first place no such public opinion ever existed on matters as to which sensible Frenchmen could dispute, and, further, that, as our author points out, the attempt to obtain a unanimity which never really exists, might, like the nominal respect for the *liberum veto* of a Polish Diet, turn out absolutely fatal to the maintenance of any rational system of government.

The public opinion for which we are in search comes somewhat nearer to the common will, which, according to Rousseau, ought to be sovereign in every democratic government. Whether, indeed, Rousseau himself ever succeeded, even in his own mind, in making clear the distinction between the common will and the will of the majority, may seem to many readers of the "Contrat Social" most doubtful. The Saint of Jacobinism, who, if he had lived during the Reign of Terror, would have been speedily sent to the guillotine by Robespierre, was a thinker the clearness of whose style often concealed the inconsistency of his thought. The truth towards which Rousseau obscurely points is made clear by Mr. Lowell. It is that men are not politically capable of maintaining a true public opinion unless they are agreed upon the aims of government, upon the principles by which these aims should be attained, and also upon the method by which the action of the government is to be determined. This kind of agreement is an essential condition for the existence of a true public opinion. It is a state of feeling which certainly may exist; it undoubtedly more or less existed in England during the greater part of the nineteenth century. Englishmen then, on the whole, agreed as to their conception of national prosperity or happiness. They agreed to a far greater extent than they themselves perceived as to the means by which national prosperity should be promoted. They agreed also that the will of the nation, that is to say the common will, or the public opinion of England, should be expressed by Parliament as representing the electors, and that the will of the nation thus expressed had a moral as well as a legal claim to obedience.

If the expression "public" needs explanation, a good deal more complete than considerations of space allow me to borrow from our author, the expression "opinion" itself receives from him, and assuredly deserves, equally careful examination. Opinion, even if it be public, is by no means always rational; it may often be more sentimental than reasonable. Yet it may be true opinion, though grounded on ideas which have little connection with logic. It may also be truly held, though adopted from others. It may be part of a man's real belief simply because (and this in itself is no bad ground) it falls in with a man's general view of life. But this general view is never perfectly true, and may be almost entirely false. Then, again, as to many topics a true public opinion can hardly exist. A sensible man, for instance, may be quite aware that on definite topics he ought to be guided by the results of scientific investigation, or, in other words, by the opinion of men who possess the best knowledge obtainable. But, then, since even scientific men sometimes disagree with one another, in this case the non-scientific ignoramus must feel that on a given topic true wisdom lies in his having no opinion at all. It causes me immense regret that I cannot follow out

**Public Opinion and Popular Government.* By A. Lawrence Lowell, President of Harvard University. American Citizen Series. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

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for your readers the most interesting conclusions which Mr. Lowell suggests as to the questions in respect of which no public opinion can in reality exist, and the decision whereof should as far as possible be left to experts.

The second leading characteristic of "Public Opinion and Popular Government" is the proof that an analysis of the nature of public opinion may make it possible, at any rate, to understand, if not always to solve, problems which puzzle thinkers and often harass the statesmen of civilized countries.

Let me explain the meaning of this statement by one salient illustration drawn from Mr. Lowell's treatise. Most of the readers of the *Nation* have, it may be assumed, from time to time defended or attacked the system of party government. How many of them, I wonder, have distinctly asked themselves the question, How does it happen that in every modern democracy party government, whether we like it or hate it, exists? Our author, at any rate, forces this inquiry upon the attention of his readers. He shows us that men of rare ability have proposed very different answers. The existence of parties, says a German writer, is to be attributed to natural diversities of temperament corresponding to the different states of maturity in man from youth to old age. The youthful man, whether he be young in years or young in spirit, is by nature a Radical; a middle-aged man is a Conservative; an old man is a Tory, or a reactionist. Other writers hold that political parties are caused by the conflict of interest between different forms of property. Gabriel Tarde, who I am glad to see receives from Mr. Lowell the respect he so well deserves, traces the growth of partisanship to the contrast between the tendency to imitate traditional custom and the tendency to imitate new fashions, while Sir Henry Maine finds the origin of parties in the primitive combativeness of mankind. Each of these explanations of partisanship may contain an element of truth, but none of them exactly meets the question in hand, namely, why the system of party government exists with more or less vigor under every form of modern democratic government. Our author supplies an answer, whether wholly satisfactory or not, to this specific question. Democracy is, he lays down, in every modern state the attempt to govern in accordance with public opinion, and, further, to govern in accordance with the public opinion of the vast mass of the citizens. Now, in a state which consists of many millions of citizens who, after all, can from the nature of things answer to any public question laid before them, only by a plain "No" or "Yes," it is absolutely essential that the persons, whether Conservatives, Liberals, or Radicals, who on the whole agree together, should get the information and receive the discipline necessary for giving expression to their agreement. And party government is the best machine hitherto invented for collecting and expressing the opinion of millions of citizens. The party leaders, or the party managers, enable the voters to act in masses. Such leaders or managers are, in fact, to use a happy expression of Mr. Lowell's, politicians who act as brokers. They may be honest brokers, who act with a view to the benefit of their country; they may be respectable brokers, who act with a view to the interest of the party which they lead and who generally are persuaded that the interest of their party may be identified with the interest of their country; they may be dishonest brokers, who care for nothing except satisfying their own lust for power, or, in the worst of all cases, their own love of money. The party system, however, is, according to our author's teaching, the outcome neither of virtue nor of vice, but of necessity. It is the one method as yet invented for supplying to millions of voters the means, I might almost say the power, of common action. This, at least, is the inference which I draw from the teaching to be found in "Public Opinion and Popular Government"; it is an inference of immense importance; it cannot be properly separated from the number of most ingenious and original suggestions made by our author as to increasing the utility and as to lessening the evils of party government.

On some other occasion I may be perhaps allowed to criticise the doctrine which I have tried to expound. I trust I may have succeeded in justifying my assertion that a sound analysis of the meaning to be attached to the term "public opinion" does, in our author's hands, lead to conclusions both of theoretical and of practical importance.

A. V. Dicey.

THE AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

Urbana, Ill., January 10.

The Association held its tenth annual meeting in Washington, December 30 to January 1. Its headquarters were at the Shoreham Hotel. The first session, on Tuesday afternoon, was devoted to International Law, and papers were read by Mr. E. M. Borchard, Profs. Frank A. Updyke, N. Dwight Harris, and F. Wells Williams. In the evening of the same day presidential addresses were delivered by Prof. W. W. Willoughby, on behalf of the American Political Science Association, and by Prof. W. F. Willoughby, on behalf of the American Association for Labor Legislation. On Wednesday morning, December 31, a session was devoted to political theory, with papers by Prof. R. G. Gettell, Dr. Ernest Brunken, and Mr. Alpheus H. Snow. Mr. Robert Lansing, who was to have presented a paper, was unavoidably absent. His paper, however, will appear in the Proceedings of the Association. At the Wednesday afternoon session, which was devoted to legislative reference bureaus, papers were presented by Prof. Chester Lloyd Jones, Hon. Robert L. Owen, Mr. Donald Richberg, and Dr. Horace E. Flack. In the discussion that followed, Dr. Charles McCarthy, Mr. John A. Lapp, and Mr. Eliott H. Goodwin took part. Wednesday evening was devoted to Congressional procedure, with papers by Mr. A. Maurice Low, Prof. W. F. Willoughby, Prof. J. W. Garner, and Dr. J. David Thompson. Thursday morning was devoted to a conference on instruction in government. Papers were read by Profs. Edgar Dawson and J. Lynn Barnard, and a committee report was presented by Prof. C. G. Haines. The discussion at this meeting was participated in by Profs. Clyde L. King, J. Q. Dealey, E. M. Sait, Dr. Arthur W. Dunn, and Hon. P. P. Claxton, Commissioner of Education. The Thursday afternoon session was devoted to the business meeting of the Association, and reports were presented by Prof. C. G. Haines, chairman of the committee on instruction in government; Dr. E. A. Fitzpatrick, secretary of the committee on practical instruction in government; Prof. Ernst Freund, chairman of the committee on legislative methods; and Prof. Clyde L. King, chairman of the committee on city and county government.

Prof. W. W. Willoughby's presidential address on "The Individual and the State" discussed the philosophical conception of the sphere of State activity, and concluded that there were no limits upon governmental action for the accomplishment of social purposes. The state as an organ of society may properly be employed to effect social ends. The presidential address of Prof. W. F. Willoughby, of the American Association for Labor Legislation, dealt with the "Philosophy of Labor Legislation" and favored a broad activity of government in that sphere.

Dr. Ernest Brunken's paper on "Some Political Tendencies in Modern Legislation" was one of the ablest presented to the Association, and attracted much attention. At the meeting devoted to Congressional Procedure distinctly new suggestions were made by Prof. W. F. Willoughby and Dr. J. David Thompson. Professor Willoughby urged the more effective organization of Congress for the performance of its supervisory or non-legislative business, and Dr. Thompson presented among other things statistical tables of the actual work performed by the various committees of Congress.

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The distinctly practical subjects discussed at the sessions devoted to legislative reference bureaus and to instruction in government attracted perhaps the greatest attention. Especially important was the session on instruction in government, at which a committee report was presented by Prof. C. G. Haines. Mr. Claxton, the Commissioner of Education, at this meeting pledged his support to the investigation undertaken by the Association with reference to political science teaching.

The discussion of methods of teaching insisted upon the practical element, and this was still further emphasized by the report of the committee on practical instruction in government. This committee was constituted for the purpose of considering plans for combining practical experience with academic training in government, and during the year it had accomplished a great deal in the investigation of this subject. Important committee reports on legislative methods and on city and county government were also made to the Association.

New committees were constituted to deal with the subjects of ballot forms and of freedom of teaching in American educational institutions.

The officers of the Association for the year 1914 are: Hon. John Bassett Moore, president; Prof. Charles E. Merriam, first vice-president; Prof. G. G. Wilson, second vice-president; Prof. L. S. Rowe, third vice-president; W. F. Dodd, secretary-treasurer. W. F. D.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

Reports were received last year at the New York State Education Department from 477 free lending libraries in the State, showing a total of 4,707,472 volumes in stock and a circulation of 21,530,294. These figures show a gain over the previous year of 13 in the number of libraries reporting, 285,571 in their stock of books, and 1,221,118 in circulation. Since 1893, when the present State system of supervision and aid for free libraries was adopted, there has been a five-fold growth in the number of volumes in free libraries, and a nine-fold growth in public use of the libraries. The per-capita circulation is now more than six times greater than in 1893, and notwithstanding the great increase in stock of books, the circulation per volume in stock has almost doubled. There are five times more books, and each book receives nearly twice the amount of use.

In their financial statements for the past year the libraries of the State show a total of $3,814,875 available for the year's expenses. Of this amount $1,738,420 was provided from local taxation, $687,955 from interest on endowments, $196,447 from the State (including $136,860 for support and rehabilitation of the State Library), $79,023 from gifts, $21,317 from entertainments, and $1,091,710 from balances on hand and miscellaneous sources. Library appropriations from local taxation were greater by $116,988 than in the preceding year. The amount expended for books, periodicals, and binding was $1,030,804, and for library salaries $1,661,104. Estimating salaries in terms of circulation, it appears that the libraries are paying 7½ cents in personal service for each book issued. This, however, includes libraries where circulation represents perhaps less than half the service rendered.

Of the 52 cities of the State, 46 are now provided with free public libraries, two others have subscription libraries available to all on the payment of a small fee, two provide limited library service through the public-school library, and two provide no public-library facilities whatever. The latter, however, Lackawanna and Watervliet, are in a sense parts of neighboring cities, and individuals may obtain library privileges from those cities. There are 24 villages in the State having each a population of 5,000 or above. In all but three of these, free or public libraries have been provided. They have an average stock of 9,174 volumes and an average circulation of 29,651.

The total number of incorporated villages in the State is 456. In 224 of these, or just about one-half, there are regularly chartered free libraries, and in about one-half of the remainder the school libraries provide some free-library privileges. Outside of incorporated cities and villages, there are 134 communities or districts which have regularly chartered free libraries, supported in part by district or town taxes, but depending mainly on voluntary contributions, membership fees, and proceeds from entertainments.

Of the total of $1,738,420 appropriated from local taxes last year for library support, $1,651,324, or 95 per cent., was provided by the cities. Greater New York provided $1,232,366, or 70 per cent., of this amount. Reduced to a per-capita basis, the figures mean that Greater New York is paying for each unit of population a library tax of 25 cents, Buffalo 24 cents, Syracuse 32 cents, Rochester 14 cents, Utica 34 cents, Mt. Vernon 46 cents, Albany 14 cents, Yonkers 17 cents, New Rochelle 44 cents, Poughkeepsie 43 cents, Schenectady 15 cents, Binghamton 22 cents, Niagara Falls 25 cents, Watertown 26 cents, Troy 8 cents, Auburn 15 cents. The tax per volume circulated in these cities was: Greater New York 8.6 cents, Buffalo 10 cents, Syracuse 12.5 cents, Rochester 30 cents, Utica 14 cents, Mt. Vernon 9 cents, Albany 4 cents, Yonkers 7 cents, New Rochelle 10 cents, Poughkeepsie 12 cents, Schenectady 7 cents, Binghamton 6 cents, Niagara Falls 10 cents, Watertown 9 cents, Troy 6 cents, Auburn 9 cents. It is worthy of note that several of the cities which are paying the highest per-capita rate for their libraries are getting a more than corresponding circulation, so that their tax per unit of issue is among the lowest, illustrating the fact that in many cases an increased tax makes for positive economy in results.

One hundred and ten different libraries were benefited during the year by gifts or bequests, each valued at $100 or more, the largest number of libraries ever thus benefited in a single year. The total amount of gifts and bequests is estimated at $1,123,291, the greater part of which was for buildings, grounds, or permanent endowments. The larger gifts were as follows: To Columbia University, a building to house the library of architecture and art, costing $500,000, from S. J. Avery; to New York Public Library, by will of W. A. Spencer, one-half his residuary estate and his private library; to Glens Falls, by will of Henry Crandall, estate worth $500,000, to be applied at discretion of trustees to public park, Boys' Saving Club, and public library; to Hamilton College library, $100,000 for a building from unnamed benefactor.

Of the 110 gifts reported, only three were from Mr. Carnegie, and these represent less than 3 per cent. of the total value of the year's gifts. It is worthy of note also that for every dollar given to libraries by the State, $32 was given by private donors.

To complete this survey of the library resources and activities of the State, there must be added the statistics of library facilities and circulation provided by the State Library, with its unique department of travelling libraries, which serves as a free library for all the people of the State, particularly for those without other library facilities. Last year small libraries, averaging 41 volumes each, making a total of 45,651 volumes, were sent for local use to no less than 1,114 localities or groups of readers. This was a gain over any previous year of more than 250 libraries sent out, and is double the number reported ten years ago.

In the library situation of the State as a whole, the most striking feature is, of course, the rapid development and huge totals shown by the great city libraries. Thus of the total stock of 4,707,472 volumes in all the free libraries of the State, 3,459,359 are in the cities and 2,051,743 in Greater New York alone; and of the total annual circulation, numbering 21,530,294 volumes, 18,300,454 were issued to city borrowers. But when it is considered that 76 per cent. of the population of the State is contained in cities, and that the population outside of cities is now actually less than it was twenty years ago, the development of libraries in the villages and rural districts of the State must be regarded as even more notable than that in the cities. Thus, of the 477 free libraries shown in the year's reports, 319 are outside of cities, and these have a total stock of books numbering 1,248,113 and an annual circulation of 3,228,840—an average for each of these libraries of 3,912 volumes in stock and 10,122 circulation. Of the total gain last year of 1,221,118 in circulation from free libraries, 598,077, or nearly one-half, was from libraries outside of cities, representing only one-quarter of the population.

The full strength of the showing in the smaller towns will perhaps best appear from a comparison with conditions reported in other States having State library commissions or bureaus of recognized efficiency. Thus, Wisconsin is generally recognized in the West and Middle West as a model for other States in its library system and its library propaganda. It has a population almost exactly equal to that of New York outside of cities. In the whole of that State, according to its last report, there were 165 free libraries, 90 library buildings, 987,254 volumes, and a property in library buildings amounting to $1,764,000. The extra-city poulation of New York has twice the number of free libraries, twice the number of buildings, a quarter more books, and a greater valuation in library buildings than the whole State of Wisconsin.

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Indiana, with a population greater than that of rural New York and a model library law and commission, reports 145 free or public libraries and 106 library buildings, more than one-half the latter being gifts from Carnegie. Both in libraries and buildings rural New York has twice the facilities reported for the whole of the Hoosier State.

California, with a population substantially larger than that of rural New York, and with a model library system, reports for the whole State 124 free libraries supported by city tax, 21 county library systems, 54 subscription libraries, and 60 association libraries, a total of 259, of which not more than 205 are free. It has 117 library buildings, 80 of which are Carnegie gifts. The total of free libraries and buildings is at least a third less than that of the smaller population in rural New York. Even Massachusetts, which was the first State to establish a State department for library extension, and which boasts a free library for every township, has fewer free libraries in operation in proportion to population than the village and country part of New York. ASA WYNKOOP.

(Head of Public Libraries Section, New York State Education Department.)

Correspondence

THE SOCIAL EMERGENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Concerning matters of sex and reproduction, there has been for many generations a conspiracy of silence. The silence is now broken. Whatever may be the wisdom or the folly of this change of attitude, it is a fact, and it constitutes a social emergency.

Throughout the nineteenth century the taboo prevailed. Certain subjects were rarely mentioned in public, and then only in euphemistic terms. The home, the church, the school, and the press joined in the conspiracy. Supposedly, they were keeping the young in a blessed state of innocence. As a matter of fact, other agencies were busy disseminating falsehoods. Most of our boys and girls, having no opportunity to hear sex and marriage and motherhood discussed with reverence, heard these matters discussed with vulgarity. While those interested in the welfare of the young withheld the truth, those who could profit by their downfall poisoned their minds with error and half-truths. An abundance of distressing evidence showed that nearly all children gained information concerning sex and reproduction from foul sources—from misinformed playmates, degenerates, obscene pictures, booklets, and advertisements of quack doctors. At the same time the social evil and its train of tragic consequences showed no abatement.

The past few years have seen a sudden change. Subjects formerly tabooed are now thrust before the public. The plain-spoken publications of social hygiene societies are distributed by hundreds of thousands. Public exhibits, setting forth the horrors of venereal diseases, are sent from place to place. Motion-picture films portray white-slavers, prostitutes, and restricted districts, and show exactly how an innocent girl may be seduced, betrayed, and sold. The stage finds it profitable to offer problem plays concerned with illicit love, with prostitution, and even with the results of venereal contagion. Newspapers that formerly made only brief references to co-respondents, houses of ill-repute, statutory offences, and serious charges, now fill columns with detailed accounts of divorce trials, traffic in women, earnings of prostitutes, and raids on houses. Novels that might have been condemned and suppressed a few decades ago are now listed among the best sellers. Lectures on sex hygiene and morals are given widely, above four hundred such lectures having been given under the auspices of a single society. Fraudulent doctors, while obeying the letter of new laws, are bolder than ever in some directions, and use the alarm caused by the production of "Damaged Goods," for example, as a means of snaring new victims. Generations of silence, enforced by the powerful influence of social custom, have been suddenly followed by a campaign of pitiless publicity, sanctioned by eminent men and women, and carried forward by the agencies of public education that daily reach the largest number of human beings—namely, the press, the motion picture, and the stage.

This far-reaching change in the customs of society is fraught with immediate dangers, because we do not know whether the mere knowledge of facts concerning sexual processes, vices, and diseases will do a given individual harm or good. The effect of such information upon any person is unquestionably determined by his physiological age, by his nervous system, by the manner and time of the presentation of the subject, above all by his will power and the controlling ideals that are acquired along with scientific facts. We have not discovered thoroughly trustworthy pedagogical principles, administrative methods, and printed materials for public education in matters of sex. So difficult and complicated are the problems, and so disastrous are mistakes in this field of instruction, that the home, the church, and the school—the institutions to which young people should naturally look for truth in all matters, the agencies best qualified to solve the problems—are extremely cautious and conservative.

Great as are the industrial and political revolutions of modern times, it is doubtful if anything so deeply concerns the coming generations as our measure of success in confronting the present social emergency.

Here mistakes will not do; here incompetent teachers cannot be trusted. Ill-advised efforts to teach sex hygiene may aggravate the very evils we are trying to assuage. Because the subject is of vital importance, education in sexual hygiene and morals must proceed cautiously and conservatively; according to tried methods, psychologically sound; always under the control of men and women of maturity, who see the present emergency in its many phases, who know how to teach, whose character is in keeping with the highest ideals of their work.

Unhappily, not all of those who have been stimulated by the new freedom of speech to thrust themselves forward as teachers of sex hygiene and as social reformers, are safe leaders. Some are ignorant and unaware that enthusiasm is not a satisfactory substitute for knowledge. Some are hysterical. At a recent purity convention a woman said, "I know little about the facts, but it is wonderful how much ignorance can accomplish when accompanied by devotion and persistence." That declaration was applauded. Some people appear to believe that they will arrive safely if they go rapidly enough and far enough, even though they may be going in the wrong direction. Young people of opposite sexes, finding evidence on every hand that the traditional taboo is removed, discuss the subject for personal pleasure. The books in the field of social hygiene which have most scrupulously and successfully avoided everything that might be sexually stimulating are not the ones bought by the largest numbers. The demand for erotic publications is so great as to warn us in advance that the new freedom will prove dangerous for many whose minds are already unclean. The propaganda for chastity is unlike many others, in that there is special danger of doing injury to the very ones in special need of help.

The American Social Hygiene Association and affiliated societies have arisen to meet the present social emergency. They are temporary expedients. Their chief aim is public education. They should frustrate the efforts of all dangerous agencies and hasten the day when the home, the church, and the school shall meet their full responsibilities in the teaching of sexual hygiene and morals.

WILLIAM TRUFANT FOSTER.

(Vice-President Social Hygiene Association, President Pacific Coast Federation for Sex Hygiene.)

Reed College Portland, Ore., January 14.

THE CONSTRUCTIVE QUARTERLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention is drawn to the appearance of my name in the *Constructive Quarterly* for September and for December in the list of the Editorial Board. Will you kindly permit me to say in your columns that I resigned my connection with this publication last May and at that time requested that my name should be removed from the list? DICKINSON S. MILLER.

New York, January 17.

THE NATIONAL GUARD OF PENNSYLVANIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of January 1 you refer to the National Guard of Pennsylvania, and in the next paragraph you say: "In the street-car strike in Philadelphia in 1910, a company of militia was disarmed and made ridiculous by a mob of women, which was promptly handled and made to behave by a small body of police."

To a person reading your article, who did not know the truth, it would appear that the company of militia was a part of the National Guard of Pennsylvania. As a matter of fact, it is no more a part of the National Guard than it is of the State constabulary. It is called the State Fencibles, and at the present time it is merely a social organization of which most of the members are young boys. It receives no support from the State and is supported by the city of Philadelphia.

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As a reader of the *Nation* and for seven years a member of the National Guard, I think it right that you should correct this wrong impression. In the coal strike of 1902 the National Guard of Pennsylvania proved its worth and showed that it is as good as any other citizen soldiery in the country. THOMAS A. WOOD.

Bristol, Pa., January 19.

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of January 8 there appeared an account of the Charleston meeting of the American Historical Association, in which a well-defined movement against certain existing methods was dismissed as a "discussion of the system of electing officers." This movement was an important feature of the business meeting.

I have awaited the appearance of the annual account of the meeting with some curiosity, as I rather expected that little would be said about the reasons which lie behind the well-taken objections to the present methods of electing the officers of the Association. As this is a vital question in a great and useful organization of students and scholars, I may venture to make some comments upon it.

Section 4 of the constitution of the American Historical Association, as it appears in the last official report, is as follows:

> The officers shall be a president, two vice-presidents, a secretary, a secretary of the council, a curator, a treasurer, and an executive council consisting of the foregoing officers and six other members elected by the Association, with the ex-presidents of the Association. *These officers shall be elected by ballot at each regular annual meeting of the Association.*

The last sentence is plain and unmistakable. It is the organic law regulating the election of officers of the American Historical Association. It is not possible to have a legal election of officers in any other way than that laid down in the constitution.

I have been an active, an interested, and an attending member of the Association for about twelve years. I have attended, if my memory is accurate, ten annual meetings, and it has never been my good fortune to see the provisions of the constitution relating to the election of officers carried out in an annual business meeting. May I commend this astonishing fact to the many learned gentlemen of the Association who specialize in constitutional interpretation?

It may be interesting to know something about the methods in force in the Association for the election of officers. They are something like this: The council, at its annual meeting, very obligingly, and in order that the Association may not be distracted from its scholarly repose, selects a nominating committee to name the officers. This committee keeps its action a profound secret, for reasons of state, or perhaps because the council has not given out the list, until the business meeting. When the rank and file are assembled they are politely but firmly told who are to be the officers for the coming year. It may be called unparliamentary for one of the workers in the ranks from Mississippi to call such methods oligarchical, but the word certainly fits.

It does not appear by what authority the council presumes to appoint this nominating committee. The Association itself, the creator of the council, certainly has no authority to appoint such a committee, but it seems that the council has. That it has assumed such authority seems to be beyond question.

There have been many and long-continued murmurs beneath the surface against such methods, and they at last found expression at Charleston, much to the evident astonishment of some of the leaders, and to the manifest pleasure of the rank and file.

The American Historical Association is suffering from a dangerous disease. It cannot be cured by homœopathic treatment. It is a case for the knife. If I know anything of the sentiment of the modest, earnest, scholarly men who sustain the Association, they will not submit further to arbitrary and unconstitutional methods in the administration of the affairs of one of the greatest associations of scholars in the world.

I have no personal criticism to make of any one. I do not wish to be understood as finding fault with the officers of the Association, past or present. I am not an office-seeker, for I well know that my action at Charleston prevents me from accepting an official position in the Association for years to come, if not for all time.

DUNBAR ROWLAND.

Mississippi Department of Archives and History, Jackson, Miss., January 12.

Literature

COMMERCE IN ANCIENT CHINA.

Chu-Fan-chi: Chinese and Arab Trade in the Twelfth and Thirteenth Centuries. By Chau Ju-kua. Translated from the Chinese and annotated by Friedrich Hirth and W. W. Rockhill. St. Petersburg: Printing Office of the Imperial Academy of Sciences.

This Chinese treatise falls into two parts. The first part deals briefly with the various countries with which the Chinese traded, each geographical division having a separate short chapter, and offers many curious bits of information which the author has picked up in the older chronicles, or has heard from contemporary merchants or navigators. In the second part a number of products brought to China from foreign lands are passed in review. Here we have various kinds of incense, choice nuts and condiments, costly ornamental woods, a few precious stones, ivory and rhinoceros horns, tortoise-shell, decorative feathers, ambergris, and a special chapter devoted to parrots. The very full notes with which the work has been provided by its translators and editors constitute a veritable mine of valuable information from all attainable sources regarding the matters treated of in the text.

The leading port of entry for these varied products was Canton, and the Government took good care to obtain a considerable share of the imports for itself. As a general rule, this share amounted to 30 per cent. of the goods, and as any attempt at smuggling was punished by the prompt confiscation of the entire cargo, there was probably but little loss on this score. The result, however, of an experiment made by China to augment this trade by the institution of an active propaganda among the foreign traders and by the issuing of especially favorable licenses to a number of importers, shows how risky a thing is governmental interference with the normal course of supply and demand. The volume of trade was, of course, greatly increased, but not enough buyers could be found, and the Government officials in the interior provinces had to bestir themselves to procure purchasers by offering inducements for barter (p. xix).

These mediæval maritime traders had many difficulties to contend with besides those arising from the risks of navigation. If a ship got off her course and put into the first port at hand, a pretext was often found to confiscate her cargo. Then there were the inevitable "presents" which had to be bestowed on the port officers, and as these were virtually the same for all craft, there was little or no profit for the owner of a small ship. Moreover, the individual traders had not only to guard against the rapacity of outsiders, but also against the possible dishonesty of their fellow-traders on shipboard; during the voyage each trader slept on top of his goods.

Chau Ju-kua tells us that some of the Indian traders carried with them, in opaque glass bottles, a kind of "holy water," which would still tempests if it were poured out over the sea. This may have referred to water brought by Mohammedan pilgrims from the sacred well of Zemzem, in Mecca (p. 111 and p. 113, note 2). Possibly the use of oil to break the force of the waves, which has stood the test of modern investigation, and was already practiced in the times of Aristotle and Pliny, may have some connection with this story.

In a mediæval record we need not be surprised to find mention of sorcery and sorcerers. It is stated that on the Somali coast there were many enchanters, who had the power to change themselves into "birds, beasts, or aquatic animals," and were thus able to terrorize the inhabitants. They were also greatly feared by the traders, for it was confidently asserted that, by their charms, they could paralyze the movement of a ship, so that she could sail neither forward nor backward. It is stated that "the Government has formally forbidden this practice" (pp. 130 ff.). Marco Polo

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tells much the same story of these sorcerers.

Among the objects of value to be found in foreign countries, diamonds and pearls are not forgotten. Of the Indian diamonds it is said that they "look like fluor-spar" and that they would not melt "when exposed to fire an hundred times." To exemplify the hardness of the stone, Chau Ju-kua adds: "It can cut jade." The use of diamond dust for this purpose may have been of special interest to the Chinese writer, as a means of conquering the extreme toughness of jade, the favorite precious substance in China. Pearls, on the other hand, were much better known to the Chinese, and have always been much more prized among them than diamonds. While the finest specimens came from the Cingalese and Persian fisheries, China herself had extensive fisheries in the southern islands off the coast of Liên-chôu-fu; these fisheries were already exhausted in the sixteenth century. Of the perils encountered by pearl-divers in the pursuit of their vocation, Chau Ju-kua gives the following grewsome details:

Pearl-fishers, with ropes fastened around their bodies, their ears and noses stopped with yellow wax, are let down into the water about 200 or 300 feet or more, the ropes being fastened on board. When a man makes a sign by shaking the rope, he is pulled up. Before this is done, however, a soft quilt is made as hot as possible in boiling water, in order to throw over the diver the moment he comes out, lest he should be seized with a fit of ague and die. They may fall in with huge fishes, dragons, and other sea monsters and have their stomachs ripped open or a limb broken by collision with their dorsal fins. When the people on board notice even so much as a drop of blood on the surface of the water, this is a sign to them that the diver has been swallowed by a fish. Cases occur in which the pearl-fisher makes a signal with his rope and the man holding it on board is not able to pull him up; then the whole crew pull with all their strength, and bring him up with his feet bitten off by a monster. (P. 230.)

The roundness of a pearl, a necessary characteristic of the finest, was determined by putting the pearl on a plate; if it were perfectly round, it would roll about all day. To avoid the payment of duty, traders often sewed up their pearls in the lining of their garments, and sometimes concealed them in the hollow handles of their umbrellas. Transparent stones, resembling cat's-eyes, were brought from certain streams in Malabar. They were believed to have been generated by the vitalizing force emanating from certain sparkling substances on the face of the cliffs rising above the streams (p. 88). The real cat's-eye was in the time of our author a favorite jewel for ring-setting, and these rings were frequently worn by foreigners in Canton. Indeed, the wearing of rings appears to have been looked upon as rather a foreign custom. The Tonquinese, who favored the habit, had rings which were sometimes worth as much as "a hundred gold pieces." Some were set with the bezoar stone (*mo-so* in Chinese), and if any one took poison unawares he had but to lick the bezoar in his ring and this was supposed to act as an antidote. In Borneo, at this period, a finger-ring was one of the presents to a bride, and in the Chola dominion, on the Coromandal coast, engagement rings of gold or silver were exchanged between the respective representatives of bride and groom.

It is pleasant to remark that in the time of Chau Ju-kua, the use of kingfishers' feathers for ornamental purposes was forbidden by law, the supply, such as it was (for luxury would not be denied), being smuggled in by dishonest traders. As early as 1107 A. D., the reigning Chinese Emperor issued the following edict against the use of these feathers, for the making of brocades, or for any other form of personal adornment (pp. 235-6):

The Ancient Rulers in their governmental measures extended the principle of humanity to plants, trees, birds, and beasts. Now the depriving of living creatures of their life, in order to get their plumage for a perfectly frivolous purpose, is certainly unworthy of the kindness extended by the Ancient Rulers to all creatures. We therefore order the officials to stop the practice on pain of punishment.

The items we have presented here, gleaned almost at random, show what a storehouse of little-known and curious information the book is. There is a very full index.

CURRENT FICTION.

Irishmen All. By G. A. Birmingham. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.

In his latest work, a volume of character sketches, Mr. Hannay shows little patience with countrymen who "play safe" at life, content with a bare living instead of taking risks. Many a college-bred man, we are to infer, casts about for a clerkship in a Government office which, at the most, will bring him but £300 a year. "He might," says the author, "have gone into a stockbroker's office and learned to gamble. It is a dangerous sport, leading to bankruptcy sometimes, to jail occasionally; but the gambler has his great moments." Usually, the writer's tone is less direct. In the chapter devoted to the politician, whom he loves even though he understands him, the story is of Timothy Sweeny, who, having insulted a policeman, received in turn a bleeding nose:

Timothy, who had the instinct for effect possessed by all great men, held up his dripping hands and turned his face, then rather streaky, to his admirers. "This," he said, "is the blood which I have shed for Ireland!"

It was then, I think, that we first began to realize that Timothy Sweeny would make a good member of Parliament.

Other chapters sketch the squireen, the country gentleman, the farmer, the publican, parish priest, etc. That on the farmer represents a subdued, tender side of the author which his fondness for farce all too frequently crowds out.

The Great Plan. By Edith Huntington Mason. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

"The Great Plan" is of suffrage inspiration, and involves an alliance with a millionaire's pocketbook. That is what permitted Emma to carry out the pet scheme she had hit upon as president of the Vassar College Suffrage Club. Upon leaving college, she induced her father to buy her a little castle on the Rhine from which to direct operations towards the liberation of the soul of the German *Hausfrau* from the bondage of *Kinder*, *Küche*, and *Kleider*. Her plan was to induce the German *Jungfrau* to emigrate from Germany—leaving the men behind her. The resulting depopulation of the Empire would undoubtedly bring the Kaiser to terms. Emma took up headquarters in her castle and installed lieutenants in other parts of Germany. Then began the canvass for souls. The number of women who had consented to leave home had reached goodly proportions when the Berlin police put a stop to further operations. Forthwith Emma attacked the citadel—Berlin. Working upon her knowledge of female psychology—obtained at Vassar—she made the vote a "craze." Fashionable women, including princesses of the blood, left their homes, formed a Boycott League, and took up residence far from the men. Then the Kaiser, alarmed, showed his hand. He offered the ladies a court ball at which a prize was to be given for the most becoming costume. He had put the crucial test.

Miss Mason introduces into her story prisoners in mouldy dungeons, lights gleaming in turret windows lit by the never-dying love of knights of yore, revels of crusaders at the witching hour of night, and reporters' attempts to write up the activities in the suffrage camp. How these occurrences were possible, how the entire affair worked out, whether the soul of the German *Hausfrau* was freed from bondage, whether Emma kept her vows of spinsterhood, the modest reviewer could scarcely compete with Miss Mason in the telling.

All Men Are Ghosts. By L. P. Jacks. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

In this volume are collected a number of those exercises in the direction of fiction which the accomplished editor of the *Hibbert Journal* puts forth from time to time. He is not a born story-teller; but the form of fiction is no longer even theoretically reserved for

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that rare person. Few people now pretend to require that a story be a story: it may be a vehicle or a stalking-horse, a canal or a pulpit. Mr. Jacks is, we understand, a philosopher and a psychologist; but he has a human hankering for a wider and perhaps more genial audience than is supplied by the *Hibbert Journal*. And the best way to tie a knot on the street-corner is to don the robe and the posture of the professional story-teller.

That Mr. Jacks is supporting the rôle with some success is proved by the fact that two of the narratives in this collection—certainly the best two—have been printed in the *Atlantic Monthly*. In only one of them does he approach that touchstone of the highest order of fiction, characterization. But no doubt he would be the last person to claim for himself the power of making people live and breathe on paper. His method is that of the philosophical satirist; his chief obstacle a somewhat lumbering sense of humor suggestive of the eighteenth-century essay, rather than the brisk and allusive "short story" of to-day. For example, the idea of his longest sketch —that men are shadowy beings whose existence is doubted among all ghosts except a small and scoffed-at band of "researchers"—is essentially humorous; but the working out of the idea is clumsy and tedious. "The Magic Formula," the motive of which is, on the face of it, far less clear and "available" as a motive of fiction, succeeds by virtue of its delicate seriousness and its touch of mysticism. The long story of the Eastern water-carrier and his strange adventures again takes us back to those of the eighteenth-century essayists who so loved the diversion of the allegorical "Oriental tale." But the nut of the present allegory is not for common jaws to crack.

SCHOULER'S HISTORY.

History of the Reconstruction Period, 1865-1877. By James Schouler. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $2 net.

Thirty-three years have passed since Mr. James Schouler, a Boston lawyer in active practice, published the first volume of his "History of the United States of America under the Constitution." It was completed in 1891, in five volumes. But the author thought best to add a sixth in 1899, and we now have a seventh, which, in spite of its distinctive title, is a consistent part of the whole. We are assured that it is the last we may expect from the author, and there is added to the present volume a general index, but a poor one, of the entire work. Of the history as a whole, it should be said that the author has given it several revisions, modifying his statements as new materials have been made accessible to the public. In his final preface he properly asks that his book be judged by the last edition. If he has not written scientific history, he has at least appreciated its spirit, and he has made use of several of the large manuscript collections that have of late been opened to students. Despite his earnest effort to be modern, Mr. Schouler is an historian of the old school. He has not detachment, he does not escape from partisan bias, and he does not write with a due appreciation of cause and effect. He is a narrator of events. In the book we have an unfolding panorama. His story is readable and informing. It abounds in good portraiture and shows a fine appreciation of the human side of history. It is the history for the average intelligent man. It has been a comfort to many an editor, college student, and busy reader. It will survive in this sense, for it has accuracy of statement and sprightliness of narration.

The decision to write a seventh volume, we are told, was due to the perusal of the papers of Andrew Johnson, recently placed in the Library of Congress, and to the publication of the diary of Gideon Welles, a member of Johnson's Cabinet. Each source showed that Johnson's Administration had been misrepresented by contemporaries and badly described in history. That Mr. Schouler should have wished to vindicate the victim of so much party feeling is evidence of the author's fairness of intention. In his earlier volumes he was not free from the sectional point of view. Whether he wrote about the struggles of Federalists against Anti-Federalists and Republicans, or the progress of the great slavery controversy, or the war for the preservation of the Union, he wrote as a New England man, although it is evident he wrote in all sincerity. In his latest volume his point of view is without sectional cast. It is an illustration of the complete departure of sectionalism from our consciousness within the last two decades. So long as the South seemed likely to control the country in her own interest, and the North wished to control it in her own interest, there was sectional suspicion, and it is hard for a man to use the historical material on which he must rely without reference to this feeling. In later years the divisions in our politics have been by social classes rather than by sections. Until this seventh volume appeared Mr. Schouler could be said to be the last prominent American historian who wrote under the influence of sectionalism.

His view of reconstruction is presented with great distinctness. He not only admits the wisdom of Presidential reconstruction, but agrees that the South did very well under it until Thaddeus Stevens obtained its overthrow in order to establish a system which was as much inspired by the desire to thwart Johnson's political plans as to promote the interest of the negro. Stevens hated the President thoroughly, and he feared his project of uniting the milder men of the North with the Southerners in a moderate party which would wipe out of existence the recently organized Republican party. Of the President Mr. Schouler says: "I think of Andrew Johnson as a strong and sturdy pine in the forest, which has grown up distorted by some rocky obstruction, twisted out of shape and crooked in trunk, and yet vigorous at the core. He was stubborn in political opinions where he thought himself right, defiant, ready to fight for them; yet those opinions were just, enlightened, and such as only a sound and independent statesman could have formed." It is doubtful if a juster characterization of Johnson could be written.

During a portion of the reconstruction period Mr. Schouler was in Washington on professional business. Always interested in public affairs, he seized the opportunity to become acquainted with the important matters that were transacted under his eyes. Out of the information he thus acquired he has drawn a body of recollection which he incorporates in the volume with a modest apology. We thus get a glimpse of Washington life and many happy characterizations of public men. Especially interesting is a chapter in which the improvements in the capital are described, along with the failure of the attempt to establish self-government in the District of Columbia. These reminiscences are the most attractive part of a very good volume.

The Conquest of Mount McKinley: The Story of Three Expeditions through the Alaskan Wilderness to Mount McKinley. By Belmore Browne. Appendix by Herschel C. Parker. Illustrations from original drawings by the author and from photographs and maps. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50 net.

My Life with the Eskimo. By Vilhjálmur Stefánsson. Illustrated. New York: The Macmillan Co. $4 net.

It is impossible to analyze with certainty the amalgam of motives underlying the ceaseless movement of northern exploration, but the lure of the difficult and dangerous can hardly be less active than the desire to enlarge the bounds of human knowledge. In the three separate efforts that finally brought Mr. Browne and Professor Parker virtually to the crest of Mount McKinley, neither of these motives was destined to be fruitless, though it was not in their original plan that a part of the fruit of the second should be a demonstration of the falsity of a previous claim to the same achievement. To the

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great majority of readers, surely, the most serious drawback in the literature of northern exploration at the present time is the probability that any new book in that field will be forced inevitably into taking up the problem of Dr. Cook, from one angle or another. As he had claimed to have reached the summit in 1906, shortly after parting from Browne and Parker, they could do nothing less in their later explorations than sift such evidence as they found for or against that claim, and all the more so in view of the odious polar controversy which had arisen in the meantime. We need only say that they found the exact place at which Cook's alleged summit photograph was taken, and found it only a little more than 5,000 feet above sea level. Evidently, Dr. Cook's later failure to distinguish between the straight line and the crooked was no sudden psychological effect of the chilly vigils of his "Polar" expedition. The time when his name can pass permanently out of current polar literature will be heartily welcomed.

In the 1910 expedition, while approaching the mountain from the southeast, from the valley of the Chulitna, they discovered Dr. Cook's peak. After bettering Cook's elevation by about 5,000 feet, Browne and Parker found this approach impossible, and withdrew. In 1912 they passed further up the Chulitna, and then, swinging to the westward, attacked the mountain from the north, this time successfully. We say *successfully*, although the few minutes' walk which would have led them to the absolute summit from the top of a series of steps which they had cut in the ice was denied to them by a fierce blizzard, with blinding snow, which would have made the recovery of their stairway impossible if once they had left it. Their observations place the summit 150 feet higher than the triangulations of the United States Government, or 20,450 feet. Professor Parker's appendix is confined to a few altitude and temperature readings at different points on or near the mountain, with an explanatory note on the method of determining altitude. In paper, print, binding, and cover decoration, the publishers have given the story an admirable setting.

The storms which, as we gather from recent press dispatches, have carried Stefánsson's ship from its base to some point at last accounts unknown to him have at least blown him good in attracting attention to his new book, telling of his life with the Eskimo, from 1908 to 1912. The work of these years was planned in consultation with the officials of the American Museum of Natural History, late in 1907, and, as Mr. Stefánsson's purpose was mainly ethnological, Dr. Rudolph M. Anderson joined him, in the interest of natural history. The ultimate aim, geographically, was the southwestern part of Victoria Island, where Mr. Stefánsson hoped to prove the presence of Eskimo in a region marked "Uninhabited" on official maps of the Canadian Government published as late as 1906. It was in the spring of 1911 that he succeeded in reaching this region, and it was here that he encountered the "Blonde Eskimo" that have taken so large a place in the press discussion of his voyage, though but a few pages are devoted to them in his book. There have been occasional references in Arctic literature to a people of this type, supposed to exist somewhere between the better-known regions to the eastward and westward of Victoria, but it was Stefánsson's good fortune to be able to put definite fact in the place of insufficiently supported rumors. He makes no attempt, as yet, scientifically to place them, but sees no historical or geographical bar to the possibility that they are descendants of the early Scandinavian colonists of Greenland. If the superficial resemblance to European types is really due to European blood, then he would regard the Scandinavian colony in Greenland as the only explanation. Such suggestions as that they are descendants of survivors of the disastrous Franklin expedition are, of course, thrown out. The type is too well marked to be due to so recent an infusion of alien blood. Possibly, the linguistic material collected by Stefánsson may help to a solution of the problem, when sifted by competent philologists, and his accumulation of folklore may yield some light. When we find him, however, stating in an off-hand way that he "also wrote down *several hundred thousand words* of Eskimo folklore in English translation" during two months at Point Barrow, within which many other activities are recorded, we cannot help feeling a little uncertain as to the possible quality of folklore so easily procured. And this feeling is not lessened by the admission in a subsequent chapter that it was only at a much later date, the last of his five winters among the Eskimo, that he could follow without effort the ordinary conversations going on in their houses.

Regardless of opinion on the point at issue, readers will tire, we think, of the frequent airing of his quarrel with the missionaries for disturbing the evolutionary balance of normal Eskimo life in general, and making it impossible for him to get any work out of an Eskimo on Sunday in particular. So far as the latter point is concerned, the baleful missionary influence seems to have swept the whole region like a blizzard, from Alaska eastward, even to settlements where the missionary himself has never set foot. That missionaries often interfere unwisely with native customs better adapted to actual conditions than any substitute from outside is true enough, but Mr. Stefánsson reiterates his objections until one begins to wonder whether, after all, he is not in the position of the traveller who cannot bear to see the picturesqueness of old Naples threatened by any advancement towards cleaning it up and making it fit to live in. With all due allowances, however, the book records a very successful expedition, the full value of which can be determined only when experts have had time to study the large collections brought back. As an explorer and collector in this particular field, his ability to do large work with little and inexpensive equipment tells heavily in his favor.

The Beginnings of Modern Ireland. By Philip Wilson. Baltimore: Norman, Remington & Company. $3.25 net.

Under the above title, Mr. Wilson has given us the first fruits of a careful study of Ireland in the sixteenth century. The present volume, which is to be followed by a second, is based upon the best authorities in print, supplemented by much manuscript material in the Record Office and at Lambeth. The research has been most thorough, and the reverse of perfunctory. The author knows his subject, and he knows it vitally—he has vanquished his notes, although they surround him at every step. One reason why he has been able to do this is that the subject has for him more than an academic interest. He deals honestly with the facts, and writes in judicial temper; but he writes from profound convictions which the studied restraint of manner serves only to make more effective. Mr. Wilson is, in fact, an Irishman who is concerned for the present state of Ireland, which he assumes to be one of "political disease"; and he is a scholar who is seeking the causes of that disease in "the past history of the country."

It might be difficult, if the point were pressed, to say what precisely is "political disease," but most men will agree that "there is something rotten in the state of Ireland," and it is not for the historian to deny that the present may be explained by the past. Now, there are different ways of regarding the past as cause of the present. The way to be profound in this respect is to say that the present is the necessary result of all the past—the outcome of "une trame continue de faits qui s'entrelacent et se succèdent sans cesse." Those who are interested to set Ireland right will be more apt to hit upon some particular aspect of her history as the fundamental cause of all her troubles; and such causes have often been pointed out, as, for example, the innate political incapacity of the Celtic character, or the vicious influence of

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the Roman Church, or the incompatibility of the English and the Irish temperaments. Mr. Wilson clears the ground by discussing all these theories at some length, and with much acumen; and in the end he finds them inadequate or positively absurd. It is true that there is a national as distinct from a Celtic Irish character, true that the priests have often exercised a baneful influence; and both the Irish character and the influence of the priests greatly complicate the Irish problem *now;* but these are results, not causes, "not an explanation of the phenomena which it is our business to examine, but rather a part of those phenomena which require to be explained." The conclusion is doubtless just. It is by being oversubtle that Irish history becomes an enigma. Put quite simply, the trouble is that for the most part Ireland has been exploited for the benefit of the English aristocracy, instead of being governed wisely in the interest of all concerned. And now, after centuries of folly, the multiplied errors of the past rise up to thwart the best intentions, and wisdom itself will scarcely prove effective.

And this, we suppose, is the reason why Mr. Wilson has entitled his book "The Beginnings of Modern Ireland," although it deals with Ireland in the sixteenth century; modern Ireland being, from his point of view, the abnormal and diseased state of Ireland, he finds its beginnings in the inception of that mistaken policy on the part of the English Government which has induced the disease. The present volume is therefore concerned to present with all necessary detail the method and the immediate results of the establishment of English supremacy in state and church during the reigns of Henry VIII, Edward, and Mary.

The outstanding error of the period is naturally found to be the attempt to impose upon Ireland the English Reformation settlement. Neither the breach with Rome nor the new ritual was popular with any class in Ireland. The new ritual was unpopular, both because it was an imposition from England and because the ideas of the Christian Renaissance, which made it acceptable to Englishmen, had never gained any foothold in Ireland. The only effect of the breach with Rome was to weaken English influence in the Irish church by binding the Irish priesthood hand and foot to the Pope. Hitherto, the Papacy, having granted Ireland to Henry II, had supported English supremacy; and this support was of immense advantage to the Anglo-Irish as a dominant caste, while at the same time it created a certain national opposition to the Pope. But after the breach between Henry VIII and Clement, the Papacy gave all its influence to strengthen the Irish opposition to England; and this change weakened the position of the Anglo-Irish by attaching the Irish priesthood to Rome. The substantial result of the Reformation settlement, therefore, was to "convert the vast majority of the nation into docile children of the Roman Catholic Church." It is not superstition, but opposition to England, that gives the priests their hold upon the Irish at the present time.

The political settlement of Henry VIII has been more often commended. Mr. Wilson admits readily enough that it had its advantages. It was advantageous to the chiefs; by surrendering their lands to the King and receiving them back in feudal tenure, they obtained the protection of the King against each other, and a more effective control of their followers, who were subjected to them in the relation of tenants. But the settlement of Henry took on the character of a golden age only to those who looked back from the dark days of Cromwell's conquest; for if it had advantages for the chiefs, it had none for the mass of the people. As tenants, the people lost many of their ancient rights over the land, and the loyalty which they had shown to the elected leader largely disappeared when the leader became an hereditary over-lord. Henry had, in a word, "created Irish landlordism." And although Mary did much to restore religious tranquillity, the political and economic situation which confronted Elizabeth was more serious than it had ever been.

There is singularly little to object to in Mr. Wilson's treatment of his subject. He accepts as genuine the Bull *Laudabiliter* by which Adrian IV is alleged to have granted Ireland to Henry II. It seems to the reviewer that Scheffer-Boichorst and others have clearly demonstrated that the document is spurious. But Mr. Wilson's main argument does not depend upon the genuineness of *Laudabiliter*, for there is good reason to suppose that Adrian did offer to grant Ireland to Henry, although there is little to indicate that Henry ever accepted the offer. In connection with the debasement of the coinage, Mr. Wilson says that "financial dishonesty on a large scale dates, in Ireland at least, from the blessed era of the Reformation." Many sins may be charged against the Reformation, but the debasement of the coinage is hardly one of them. It has been maintained, indeed, that the Reformation and the debasement of the coinage were both results of some more profound economic condition—we have forgotten now just what. Since Mr. Wilson does not say that the Reformation was responsible for financial dishonesty on a large scale, it would have been better perhaps not to have implied as much. It is, however, not often, and never in any material point, that Mr. Wilson's sympathies carry him beyond the just measure.

Notes

We may expect shortly from Macmillans a new edition of "South America: Observations and Impressions," by James Bryce; "The American Doctrine of Judicial Supremacy," by Charles G. Haines, and a new edition of "Mexico: The Wonderland of the South," by W. E. Carson.

On Saturday Putnams issue "The Judgment of the Sword," by Maud Diver; a new edition of "One Generation of a Norfolk Family," by A. Jessopp, D.D., and "18,000 Words Often Mispronounced," by W. H. P. Phyfe, which is an enlarged edition of this author's similar work dealing with 12,000 words.

To provide good historical German reading for schools and colleges Prof. W. A. Adams, of Dartmouth, has edited for D. C. Heath, with notes and vocabulary, Rogge's "Der grosse Preussenkönig," which is a life of Frederick the Great.

A forthcoming book in the list of Paul Elder & Co. is "The Power of Mental Demand," by Herbert Edward Law.

In Dr. Richard C. Cabot's "What Men Live By," announced by Houghton Mifflin Co., the discussion centres on the topic, "The Call of the Job as the Doctor Sees It."

Lord Avebury's "Prehistoric Times" will appear on Saturday from the press of Henry Holt & Co., in a new and thoroughly revised edition.

The whole question of the Eastern versus the Western attitude towards life is raised in Paul Dahlke's "Buddhist Stories," announced by Dutton.

A London publication analogous to the new *Unpopular Review* is the *Candid Quarterly Review*, the first issue of which is promised by Mr. Gibson Bowles for February. It threatens with relentless exposure "insincerity, dishonesty, corruption, or aught that may bring danger or dishonor to the State."

Mr. Yone Noguchi, who is now lecturing in London, has placed with Elkin Mathews "Through the Torii," a volume of thirty-five essays, a number of which deal with English literature and art.

The London *Athenæum* notes with pleasure that Mr. Cecil Harmsworth has repaired and restored Dr. Johnson's house, at No. 17 Gough Square, and has thrown it open to the public. "A good part of the restoration consisted in burning off paint, six coats of which were removed from the woodwork of the staircase, which is left with the wood in its natural color." Dr. Johnson's own rooms on the top floor have been reduced to one, as the partition between them had nearly rotted away.

For the encouragement of historical research the American Historical Association offers two prizes, each of $200: the Justin Winsor prize in American history and the Herbert Baxter Adams prize in European history. Each is awarded biennially (the

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Winsor prize in the even years and the Adams prize in the odd years) for the best unpublished monograph submitted to the committee of awards on or before July 1 of the given year. The conditions of award can be learned by communicating with the respective chairmen of the committees—with Prof. Claude H. Van Tyne (University of Michigan) as regards the Winsor prize; with Prof. George Lincoln Burr (Cornell) concerning the Adams prize.

In *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for Decemger Graf v. Westarp describes a journey in Armenia and Kurdistan. The great agricultural wealth of the region, undeveloped from lack of means of communication with the world markets, strongly impressed him, as did the unlimited possibilities of electric power generated from the numerous mountain streams. Other subjects treated are the Spanish lake of Castañeda and the Admiralty Island, the least-known part of German New Guinea. There is also an excellent map showing the new provisory boundaries of Servia and Bulgaria.

"The Devil's Garden," by W. B. Maxwell, reviewed in the *Nation* last week and there credited to the London publishers, Hutchinson & Co., is issued in this country by the Bobbs-Merrill Co.

Mrs. Betham-Edwards is probably better known to American readers for her studies of French life than for her work in fiction, and the introduction of her "Lord of the Harvest" in the World's Classics of the Oxford University Press may cause some surprise—but it will give greater pleasure. Mr. Frederic Harrison furnishes a eulogistic preface which vouches for the authenticity of the pictures of rural life in Suffolk as the novelist knew that life in her girlhood. It is an exquisite and wholesome story.

A superb piece of work from the Riverside Press is the quarto reprint of "Washington's Farewell Address," issued by Houghton Mifflin Company in a limited edition at the price of $5 net. Montaigne type is used, and hand-made Italian paper.

From the R. R. Bowker Co., of this city, we have received "The Reference Catalogue of Current Literature" for 1913, published in London by J. Whitaker & Sons, Ltd. It is scarcely necessary to say that this standard work lists all the books now in print and for sale in Great Britain. As in the preceding issue, the Index is printed in a separate volume; it contains nearly two hundred thousand entries. For any one concerned in English publications the "Reference Catalogue" is indispensable.

It was a happy idea of Dr. Jacob Zeitlin, of the University of Illinois, to collect in one volume the writings which justify such a title as "Hazlitt on English Literature" (Oxford University Press). Beginning with the essay on the spirit of the Elizabethan age, he arranges these selected essays chronologically down to the studies of Wordsworth and Hazlitt's other great contemporaries. His purpose is to present Hazlitt's work in such form as to kindle in the student's mind some spark of the essayist's own magnificent enthusiasm and gusto for literature. To this end also he has prefixed a considerable study of Hazlitt as man and writer—chiefly the latter—which shows good mastery of the subject. There is no attempt on the part of the editor to attribute to Hazlitt critical virtues which he did not possess; possibly, however, he might have forestalled a certain coolness towards Hazlitt's enthusiasm which is likely to arise in the student's mind after the first shock of interest has subsided, by setting forth more clearly and frankly the weaker side of Hazlitt's genius. Though Hazlitt, for a man of so passionate an intelligence, was surprisingly fair and balanced in his literary judgments, one cannot but feel in him a certain lack of philosophic reflection, or of what might be called philosophic "character." He responds to good things immediately and spontaneously and passionately, but these literary reactions are often at variance with his political and social reactions. He is oftenest sound æsthetically by instinct; that is the quality of *gusto;* the higher faculty of *taste* would demand a consistent judgment from the whole nature of the man, æsthetic, mental, and moral. It is perhaps this trait of Hazlitt which makes him really more lastingly satisfactory in such personal essays as "My First Acquaintance with Poets" and "On Reading Old Books," and Dr. Zeitlin has wisely included four or five of these in his excellent volume.

Miss Dorothy Brewster's "Aaron Hill, Poet, Dramatist, Projector" (Columbia University Press), has the merit, somewhat unusual in a doctorial dissertation, of dealing seriously with a minor character of literature without attempting to magnify his importance. Despite Hill's enormous and varied activities, and despite the fact that he belonged to one of the most interesting groups of men England has known, he himself somehow fails to interest us, and Miss Brewster's careful and exhaustive treatise, though well managed, suffers a little the penalty of its subject. But for one concerned with Pope and his circle the book will have considerable value.

A French academician, not many years since, confessed himself unable, in spite of much rubbing of the eyes, to distinguish very clearly in English literature that note of national gayety which might be expected from the inhabitants of a country praised to all the world as "Merry England." Although it is only fair to remark that the Frenchman was perhaps betrayed by the modern meaning of "merry" into looking for somewhat more in the way of high spirits than the original significance of the word warrants—the phrase no more represents an attempt to characterize the national temperament than the corresponding expression, "la douce France"—still, we are forced to agree with him that English literature and English history are from beginning to end rather serious matters. Such an impression will not be greatly changed by a perusal of Prof. George H. McKnight's well-edited "Middle English Humorous Tales in Verse," issued in the Belles-Lettres series (Heath). The "Fox and the Wolf" is humorous enough in all conscience, but its humor is in large measure hardly more than a skilful presentation in English of what was already current in the European beast epic, to which England made only one other striking and apparently more original contribution, Chaucer's tale of the cock and the fox. To the cynical *fabliau* of "Dame Siriz," the widely diffused tale of the weeping bitch, the word *merry,* in any of its senses, could hardly be applied, and the humor of the minstrel romance, "Sir Cleges," is strictly of the slapstick variety. But humor is a highly conventional and hence extremely perishable commodity, and with all abatements the present collection serves as an excellent foil to contemporary productions at once more imposing and more dour. None of the three texts is conveniently obtainable elsewhere, and an elaborate introduction discussing the numerous and widely distributed versions of the stories, together with a detailed vocabulary, commends the volume to students.

A new edition, with new matter, of Hermann Hagedorn's "Poems and Ballads" (Macmillan) calls attention to his position among the younger poets of the day. As between the two impulses represented by Alfred Noyes and John Masefield, Mr. Hagedorn is allied emphatically with the former. Like Mr. Noyes, he turns by preference to the heroic and escapes from the meanness of the present by themes as scattered as Scandinavian mythology, Syrian love, Welsh legend, and Renaissance history. In most of those subjects he is quite at home. They call for moods, not thought, for a sweeping verse, and for the choice image, in all of which properties he is almost as facile as Mr. Noyes. Not that the forces of the day leave him entirely unmoved. He can chide a painted, powdered girl of fifteen, and find the heaven and hell in "this milky way of souls" which is New York, and grieve over the Senate's discrimination as regards the Panama tolls:

> Hot in the fevered blood of nations blazes
> The strife of souls. Only by clear-descried
> Intrepid equity can we endure.

But to "live issues" the writer is less inclined than to mingling in that fringe of consciousness of the age which is the Romanticist's delight. At times consorting "too precisely" with this spirit makes him a mystic, as in a long outpouring, entitled, "Wings," where he is inarticulate and hysterical:

> Hear it! The Wind!
> Wedge the shivering door,
> Tie firmer the blind.
> Wings!
> The infinite sorrow
> Of broken things
> Clutches my spirit.
> Hear it!

His appeal is most effective in more familiar, even trite themes which require him to be a simple poet, struck by beauty and slightly piqued by mystery. In this vein he sings charmingly of "The Hummingbird":

> Through the tree-top and clover a-whirr and away!
> Hi! little rover, stop and stay.
>
> Merry, absurd, excited wag—
> Lilliput-bird in Brobdingnag!
>
> . . . . . .
>
> A-whirr again over the garden, away!
> Who calls, little rover? Bird or fay?
>
> Agleam and aglow, incarnate bliss!
> What do you know that we humans miss?
>
> In the lily's chalice, what rune, what spell,
> In the rose's palace, what do they tell
>
> (When the door you bob in, airily)
> That they hush from the robin, hide from the bee?—
>
> Fearing the crew of chatter and song
> And tell to you of the chantless tongue?

When following his special inclinations

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Mr. Hagedorn seldom falters; his verse has the desired "go." But until it contains some solid thought it is likely to leave the reader slightly cloyed.

Clifton Johnson's skilful reporting, with camera and pen, of American rural scenes, is carried into the sixth volume of Macmillan's Highways and Byways Series—"From the St. Lawrence to Virginia." As always, the author's main concern is with rural characters and rural talk, and the reader interested in the scenery of travel will grow impatient of the consistent blurring of the background. The chief criticism of the series as a whole, indeed, is the monotony which springs from this preoccupation with men and conversation. A farmer of New York does not talk very differently from a farmer of Wisconsin or Oklahoma, or of different matters. But having chosen his limited goal, the author achieves it with simplicity and truth, and preserves in print the picturesque flavor with which the inhabitants reveal their home life and employments. A certain distinction is lent the present volume in its sketches of survivors of the Civil War. A visit to Gettysburg, and rambles through the Rappahannock and Shenandoah valleys, where in remote districts memories of the conflict sturdily persist, follow winter scenes in the Catskills and Adirondacks, and in the coal and oil fields of Pennsylvania.

"Mercantile Credit" (Holt), by James E. Hagerty, considers in detail the nature of mercantile credit and its relation to bank and personal or consumptive credit. Several chapters are devoted to the credit man and his sources of information—mercantile agencies, travelling salesmen, travelling credit representatives, attorneys, banks, and a recently developed institution, the credit exchange. A study is made of the collector, his qualifications, his office system, and the most approved methods of collecting accounts. General readers will find of most interest the chapter on Mercantile Credit and Depressions. The author maintains that changes in distributive industry have a powerful effect upon the extension of credit and hence upon business failures and crises. The department store, the mail-order house, the branch shop, the coöperative purchasing organization, direct selling by manufacturer to consumer, all reduce the number of distributing agents, and therefore lessen the volume of credit required. Thus failures and crises are rendered less likely. On the other hand, the frequency and extent of failures increase as the products of a country become specialized and depart from the staple type. Credit based upon cotton, iron, or sugar is less subject to shrinkage in value than that resting upon highly wrought manufactured products. These and other influences must be taken into account in determining the causes of recent crises. The author maintains that an increase in credit transactions was more largely responsible for the crisis of 1893 than is generally believed. The book contains an historical and analytical examination of the bankruptcy acts of the Federal Government, and a chapter on State insolvency legislation.

Prof. W. W. Davis's stout volume on "The Civil War and Reconstruction in Florida" (Longmans, Green) adds another to the long list of monographs on American history, economics, and public law for which we have to thank the Columbia University School of Political Science, and to which the palm of definitiveness may confidently be awarded. The author modestly disclaims any pretence that his work adds greatly to the essential understanding of the period with which it deals, or that much that is new will be found in his pages. Students of American history are coming to see, however, that the working of public policy in the broad field of the nation is only to be understood fully when its course has been traced in the States also; and as an exhaustive study of a State during its seventeen most critical years, Professor Davis's work leaves little to be desired. Where the whole is so thoroughly done, comment upon the excellence of particular features is hardly necessary. Especially interesting and important, however, are the chapters on the economic adjustment of Florida to the war, with the survey of industry, State finance, and agriculture during the war period; on the conduct and treatment of the negro from 1861 to 1865; on the operations of the ill-starred Freedmen's Bureau; and on the period of lawlessness and crime which attended the imposition of Republican reconstruction. Never, perhaps, has the course of a great political party suffered such withering condemnation from historians as has that of the Republican party for the twelve years following Appomattox; and Professor Davis's study only confirms the general condemnation. The only material criticism to be passed upon the author's work is in the arrangement of the bibliography, where a fuller and more detailed annotation of the many rare items and of the Federal documents would have been helpful.

It was something of an experiment to take a local history of recognized merit and expand it to twice its original content. In the case of the "History of Lexington, Mass." (Houghton Mifflin), the experiment has justified itself. Taking Charles Hudson's "History," published in 1868, the Lexington Historical Society has revised the text, and continued the story to 1912. The revision of text involved not only identification of extracts, but the omission of sentences no longer vital to the story, and a page-to-page comparison is required to appreciate what has been done. Interest naturally centres on the account of the battle of Lexington, and the editorial committee could hardly pay a higher tribute to Hudson than by its statement that "while some new light has been thrown upon that event by modern historians, few, if any, narrations of the Battle are so comprehensive, so well balanced, and so accurate as is Mr. Hudson's." Liberal notes add to Hudson's facts, but his text in these chapters shows few changes. In one instance, that of the note on Yankee Doodle, the committee has passed over Sonneck's very careful study of its origin and use. So far then as a new edition of Hudson is concerned the committee has performed its task with judgment and thoroughness. The added chapters, bringing the history of the town and its institutions to 1912, indicate the great expansion of town life since 1868, and how far Lexington has satisfied the needs of its population. As a record of such town life the two volumes are all that can be desired. No man of national importance, except Theodore Parker, has come from its limits, and thus the connection with national history is slight, compared with that of the town of Quincy; but this fact enabled the committee to limit its labors to the locality. The second volume is devoted to the genealogies of Lexington families, in itself a great undertaking. In mechanical make-up the committee has adopted the best, so that both in content and in appearance the issue stands among the first on local history.

Prof. Charles H. Ambler's "Thomas Ritchie, a Study in Virginia Politics" (Richmond: Bell Book and Stationery Co.) supplies much information on a little known but important phase of our political history. Ritchie founded the Richmond *Enquirer* in 1804, and for forty years it was the mouthpiece of a powerful clique in State politics. He reflected the views of Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe, and in 1825 followed Van Buren, Crawford's heir, into the Jackson combination. He served the New Yorker faithfully, taking his side against Calhoun. In 1845 he went to Washington to become editor of the *Union*, founded to express the views of the Polk Administration. He was not a great editor in the sense that Greeley and Bowles were great. He did not make sentiment so much as interpret it. He bent before the blast, and often had to readjust his sailing apparatus to suit a changing wind. Owing to his close relations with the various administrations he was generally regarded as a good prophet of coming events, and through the weight Virginia had in Southern affairs he was a significant vehicle for expressing the opinion of his State on sectional matters. Professor Ambler has drawn the material for his book from the editorials of Ritchie and from the correspondence of the same editor and of other important contemporaries. His treatment is chronological and the emphasis is pretty even. Yet his book is not easy reading for even the well-informed reader. It contains few attempts at interpretation. On the other hand, it is a treasure-house of valuable matter. It makes it possible to understand better than before the gradual decrease of Virginia's power in the South and the slowly increasing influence of the Gulf States. Ritchie and his friends fought hard to ward off the triumph of Calhoun, knowing that it meant disunion. The logic of the situation was against him. When he failed Virginia was obliged to bow her head and for the second time surrender leadership. When that was done the secessionists took control of the South.

In "Italian Yesterdays" (Dodd, Mead) Mrs. Hugh Fraser's vein of reminiscence runs pretty thin. Of those vivid personal recollections which constituted the charm of her earlier volumes there is only a minimum. Much that she reports is remotest hearsay, more is compilation from reading. What we really have is a collection of historical sketches ranging from the early Christian martyrs to Pius IX. Queen Joan of Naples, Alaric, and the Man with the Iron Mask are representative intermediate topics. There is a good deal that is amusing in the book, but the random meth-

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od, with constant slants in all directions, grows tiresome, and the ratio of substantial grain of information to chaff of comment and illustration is unduly small.

The death at the age of sixty is reported from Paris of Francis de Pressensé, an eminent French political writer, who, for a few months in 1880, was Secretary of the French Embassy at Washington. He then resigned from the diplomatic career in order to enter active politics. He was not successful in his candidature for the Chamber of Deputies until 1902, when he was elected to represent Lyons. He retired last year. M. de Pressensé was president of the League of the Rights of Man. One of his most important works was a history of the Union of England and Ireland. He was a constant contributor of political articles to the French press.

Science

RADIOACTIVITY.

Radioactive Substances and their Radiations. By E. Rutherford, D.Sc., Ph.D., LL.D., F.R.S., Nobel Laureate, Langworthy Professor of Physics, University of Manchester. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.50 net.

An indication of the interest of the general public in the subject of radioactivity may be found in the proposal of Secretary Lane to conserve all lands containing radiferous ores for the benefit of the public, this benefit being expected to accrue in the possible cure of cancer. But this is not the reason for the interest in the book that lies before us, or the reason that its author, easily one of the two most important contributors to this subject, was honored with the award of the Nobel Prize, and has recently been knighted. It is for the interest of the wonderful physical relations and the adjustment of the hosts of newly discovered facts into a consistent body of theory that this book, the most recent and the most encyclopædic treatise on the subject, demands attention. Nothing can give a better idea of the rapid development of contemporary physics than the thought that the whole of our knowledge of radioactivity is not quite eighteen years old. In 1904 Professor Rutherford published his treatise containing 382 pages, followed the next year by a second edition, but the present work, the greater part of which is entirely new, reaches no less than 670 pages, and in many places is forced to treat matters with a conciseness which, though necessary, is to be regretted.

It was in 1895 that the world was astonished by the discovery by Röntgen of the so-called X-rays, with their mysterious power of penetrating opaque substances and affecting the photographic plate, and causing fluorescence, or lighting up, of certain salts exposed to their influence. This discovery suggested to Henri Becquerel the thought that certain ordinary bodies might emit similar radiations, with the result that he stated, on February 24, 1896, that salts of uranium possessed the property of emitting a type of radiation capable of penetrating through a considerable thickness of matter impenetrable to ordinary light. This power was found not to have, as at first suspected, any connection with the power of phosphorescence, but to constitute an entirely new phenomenon. It has been found that very many bodies have this power, to which the name radioactivity has been given, and the study of radioactive phenomena has given rise to a new and very important department of physics. Besides the salts of uranium, the element thorium and its compounds were learned to have these properties in large measure, and after the examination of great quantities of minerals containing uranium and thorium, Madame Curie was able to isolate a new element several million times as powerful as uranium, to which the name radium was given. It may be remarked that the very high price which radium commands (at present about $80 per milligram) is due to the enormous concentration that is necessary, and that the methods of preparation are no secret, having been described at length by Mme. Curie. In the ton of mineral handled by her there was present about 200 milligrams (about one one-hundred-and-fiftieth of an ounce) of radium. Besides these most important substances, may be named the new elements: polonium, discovered by Mme. Curie; actinium, by her colleague Debierne, and ionium, by the American Boltwood, of Yale. The table given in the first chapter by Rutherford contains the names of thirty-two distinct radioactive substances, arranged in three families, according to their genesis.

To the original method of study of radioactivity, that of the impression on the photographic plate, was soon added a more powerful one, given by the effect of the new radiations in making gases conduct electricity, or, as it is called, ionizing them. Chapter ii is therefore devoted to the phenomena of ionization of gases, a subject studied at such great length by Sir J. J. Thomson and his students, of whom Rutherford was one. In the act of ionization the molecules of the non-conducting gas, neutral as regards electricity, are broken up into parts, charged respectively with positive and negative electricity, which constitute the *ions* (goers) that, under the influence of electric forces, travel and carry the electricity whose motion constitutes the current. One of the triumphs of Sir J. J. Thomson was the counting of the number of ions produced in a gas and the determination of the charge, always the same, and constituting the original package of electricity, now denominated the electron, the smallest thing we know, nearly two thousand times lighter than the atom of hydrogen. This ionization of the gas, then, generally air, is measured by the simplest of electrical instruments, the electroscope, whose charged gold leaves collapse when the air is ionized by the radiations in question, the rate of collapse being faster as the radiations are more powerful. It is one of the striking things connected with radioactivity that all the work is done with extremely simple apparatus, so that many of the figures in this book might have been drawn by a child, frequently representing a metal tube or box with little inside.

One of the chief results of the study of ionization comes from the fact that a moving ion is deflected by a magnet, the deflection being greater the *lighter* the ion. It is also deflected by an electric force, the deflection being greater the larger the electric charge of the ion; and it is by combining both these actions that we are able to find the ratio of its electric charge to its mass, a quantity of prime importance. In chapter iii we have treated the various methods of measurement of the radiations, comprising the photographic, electric, and the method employing the luminosity produced by the rays on screens of zinc sulphide or similar fluorescent substances. Several forms of electrometer are described, the purpose always being to measure the ionization current produced by the radiations. As an example of the care necessary in manipulation, it is stated that all sources of active matter should be kept in sealed vessels, otherwise the whole laboratory may become contaminated, and make measurements impossible.

It was soon found that the radiations are not all of the same kind, but they may be sharply divided into three kinds, known as α, β, and γ (alpha, beta, and gamma) rays. Examined by the action of a magnet, it is found that the β rays are strongly deflected, in such a direction as to show that they are negatively charged with electricity, and they are shown to be composed of small particles travelling with nearly the velocity of light. The most remarkable thing about them is that the charge of each particle is found to be the same as that of the particles composing the cathode rays in exhausted tubes, with which the β rays are substantially identical. The α rays are but little deflected by a magnetic field, and in the opposite direction, showing that they are positively charged. They move about fifteen times more slowly than light. They are also small particles, many times heavier than the β particles. The γ rays are not deviated at all, and are probably not material particles, but waves similar to the X-rays.

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The α rays are readily absorbed and stopped by thin metal foil or by a few centimetres of air. The β rays are about 100 times as penetrating, and the γ rays 100 times as penetrating as these, being able to be detected after passing through *eight inches of solid iron*. These properties enable the different rays to be distinguished, and a common way of measuring the activity of substances is to enclose them in an envelope thick enough to let only the γ rays pass. It is not to be wondered at, then, that many experiments are done with the radioactive substance sealed up in a glass tube. The ionizing effect of the rays is different from the penetration, the α rays producing the most of the ionization, the γ rays the least.

One of the most extraordinary experimental feats connected with the α rays is that of Rutherford himself of counting the α particles shot off from radium and of making a single α particle visible, at least by its effects. This was done by putting the radium in an exhausted tube at a considerable distance from a small hole through which the particle must go to reach the ionization chamber. In order to make the effect of a single particle perceptible, an electric field of considerable strength was imposed on the gas, so that the additional effect of the arriving α particle was magnified several thousand times, and was sufficient to move the electrometer. In the appendix we actually see a photograph of the motion of the index of a string electrometer, every tooth upon the record corresponding to the arrival of one α particle. The magnitude of this performance may be estimated when we consider the result that the number of α particles expelled per second from one gram of radium would be 13.6 times a number represented by 1 followed by ten ciphers. Of course, it is only an infinitesimal fraction of such a number that are allowed to go through the hole and register.

After four chapters on the three kinds of rays and their properties, we come in chapter viii to the continuous production and decay of radioactive matter. In fact, while the early experiments had seemed to show the surprising fact that the activity of emission of the rays went on undiminished with time, more careful measurements showed that the activity of all bodies was subject to continual decay, according to the very simple law of compound interest, namely, that the rate of *loss* is proportional to the amount remaining, or, to put it otherwise, if in a given time one-half of the substance has decayed, in the same time one-half of the remainder will have decayed, and so on. To account for this the hypothesis of disintegration of the atom was put forward by Rutherford and Soddy. That is to say, in a substance like uranium, the atoms are not permanently stable, but on an average a constant small fraction of them (about one in a million million millions, or 10^{18}) breaks up each second. The atomic explosion is violent, and results in the expulsion from the atom of one, or possibly two, α particles with great velocity. The remaining atom has a smaller atomic weight than the original one, and has quite different properties. Thus we have a spontaneous transformation of the elements, so long looked for by the alchemist and chemist. But the transformation is quite different from ordinary chemical change, in that it is absolutely not affected by temperature or other physical circumstances. It is for this reason that radioactivity is not to be classed under chemistry. The new atoms may disintegrate again, and thus we have the evolution of the radioactive substances, and their arrangement in families, with parents and descendants, of which we have spoken. Thus it has been found that uranium is the grandparent of radium, its parent being ionium, while radium has a long list of descendants, ending with polonium. Some of the descendants are gases, such as the emanation studied by Rutherford, of which there is one for the radium family, one for the actinium, and one for the thorium. It must not be supposed that these various generations are equally long-lived, for while the half-value period for uranium is six billion years, that for actinium A is but two-thousandths of a second. We may be allowed to wonder how the former number may be determined in the short time available here below, and also to be somewhat skeptical as to the relative accuracy of determinations of quantities of such enormous disparity.

In chapter ix we have an account of the radioactive gases, the emanation of radium having its half-period determined with considerable exactness as 3.85 days. The emanations are condensed to liquids by cold, like any gas, and can be absorbed by water and removed by boiling. They also diffuse like ordinary gases, and can have their molecular weights thus determined, the radium emanation being found to have a high molecular weight. In chapter x we have an account of the "active deposit," which is deposited on the surface of substances exposed to emanations, and constitutes a more or less complex radioactive substance. In chapter xiii, on radium and its emanation, in which among other things we find the spectrum of the latter, we get an account of the separation of *metallic* radium, accomplished for the first time by Curie and Debierne in 1910, by the electrolysis of radium chloride.

After several chapters on radium, actinium, thorium, and their products, we come in chapter xvii to the very interesting subject of the production of helium and the emission of heat. Helium is a gas that was discovered spectroscopically by Lockyer, in 1868, as existing in the sun. No evidence of its existence on the earth was discovered until 1895, when Ramsay showed that a gas found by Hillebrand in Washington to be given off on solution by certain minerals was identical with helium. Helium is chemically a very inert gas, and as it was found in considerable quantities associated with uranium and thorium, it was suggested by Rutherford and Soddy that it might be a disintegration product of the radio elements. Additional weight was lent to this suggestion by Rutherford's discovery that the α particle expelled from radium had an apparent mass twice that of the hydrogen atom, and might prove to be an atom of helium. This was found by Ramsay and Soddy to be the case, and they eventually had the satisfaction of seeing a tube of radium emanation in which the spectroscope revealed no helium at first, after standing four days, develop the characteristic helium spectrum. This was an event of great importance, as it was the first definite evidence of the production of a known element during the transformation of radioactive matter. It was finally shown conclusively by Rutherford that the α particles from all types of radioactive matter were identical and consisted of helium atoms carrying two unit positive charges of electricity. From the measurement of the rate of production of helium and the amount of it already found accumulated in certain minerals, it is reckoned that some of the primary uranium and thorium minerals are more than 200 million years old.

One of the properties that have attracted the most attention and given rise to the most discussion is the continuous emission of heat by radioactive bodies. The first definite measure of the amount of heat energy radiated was given by P. Curie and Laborde in 1903. They found that a radium compound kept itself continuously at a temperature several degrees warmer than that of the surrounding atmosphere. The amount of heat emitted by the radium was more than enough to melt per hour an amount of ice equal to its own weight. An active discussion arose as to the source of all this energy, and it was asked whether the doctrine of conservation of energy was overthrown, or whether the radioactive bodies possessed some hitherto unknown means of taking up energy from outside and converting it into heat; but it is now pretty generally admitted that the energy is stored in the atom, and is not inexhaustible, though very great in quantity. The enormous amount of energy released in transformations accompanied by the expulsion of α rays may be seen from the statement that the

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emanation during its successive transformations gives out more than ten million times as much energy as the combination of an equal volume of hydrogen and oxygen to form water, although the latter reaction is accompanied by a larger release of energy than by any other known to chemistry. It is no wonder then that radium can produce burns and destroy diseased tissues.

The radioactive transformations also throw much light on the structure of the atom, models of which have been proposed by Lord Kelvin and Sir J. J. Thomson, representing it as a sphere made of positive electricity, in which circulate in nearly circular orbits swarms of negative electrons. It has been shown that under certain circumstances such an arrangement can become unstable, and one or more electrons would be expelled, as in radioactive changes. At any rate, it is evident that the atom is far more complicated than our old-fashioned ideas, which supposed it indivisible. In the last chapter we have an account of the radioactivity of the earth and atmosphere. As has been hinted above, it turns out that nearly everything is more or less radioactive, earth, air, rain, and snow. Geologists like Joly and physicists like Strutt have attempted careful estimates of the distribution of radioactive matter in the earth's crust, and have shown that there is more than enough to account for the internal heat of the earth. In fact, if they are right, there will not be much cooling of the earth for the next hundred million years. It will be seen how these results entirely upset Lord Kelvin's estimate of the age of the earth, made without any assumption of internal production of heat.

In an appendix we find two remarkable photographs showing the track of α and β particles made visible by their effect in condensing water vapor, and the registration of the expulsion of α particles mentioned above. We feel then that these modern magicians have actually made us see the formerly hypothetical atom. At the end we find a set of tables and an excellent index. Throughout the book one is impressed with the calm and unsensational tone adopted, absolutely free from the hysterical statements which we so often see in the press, and from any nonsense about the application of the great stores of energy of radium to drive engines, so eagerly desired by the sensational novelist. May we not in conclusion congratulate Sir Ernest Rutherford on what he has accomplished in forty-two years, and wish him an equally productive remainder of his life.

Dr. Edward Charles Spitzka, who dropped dead last week at his home in New York, was prominent as a neurologist. He was born in New York, November 10, 1852. He attended the College of the City of New York, 1870-73, and the New York University Medical College in 1873. From 1873-76 he studied in Leipzig and Vienna. Dr. Spitzka was a specialist in internal diseases, particularly of the nervous system, and served as a medical expert in cases of mental disorder; at the trial of Guiteau, the assassin of President Garfield, he testified to the prisoner's insanity. From 1881 to 1884 he was the editor of the *American Journal of Neurology*. He was the author of a "Treatise on Insanity."

Dr. Benjamin Osgood Peirce, Hollis professor of mathematics and natural philosophy in Harvard University, died on Wednesday of last week at his home in Cambridge. He was in his sixtieth year. Professor Peirce was born in Beverly, Mass., February 11, 1854; he graduated from Harvard in 1876, and three years later obtained the degree of Ph.D. at the University of Leipzig, after which he studied for a year in Berlin. Returning to America, he taught in the Boston Latin School, 1880-1881, and then became an instructor in mathematics at Harvard. In 1884 he was made assistant professor of mathematics and physics, and in 1888 he became Hollis professor. He was a member of the National Academy of Sciences, American Mathematical Society, American Physical Society, Astronomical and Astrophysical Society of America, Société Française de Physique, Circolo Matematico di Palermo, a Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and of the American Philosophical Society. Among his published works are "Theory of the Newtonian Potential Function," "Table of Integrals," and "Experiments in Magnetism."

Drama

W. S. Maugham's "The Land of Promise" will be issued shortly by Edward J. Clode in a profusely illustrated edition.

It is clear that as long as the world goes round moths will rush into candle flames, lawyers will dash into the Bacon-Shakespeare controversy, and professors will explain the sonnets and pluck at the heart of Hamlet's mystery. Wilbraham Fitzjohn Trench is an ex-professor, late of University College, Galway. He knows his Furness, his Dowden, the recent work of Professor Bradley, and much else. But highly as he regards, for example, Mr. Bradley's valuable work, he finds that solid critic's interpretation of Hamlet "quite incompatible with mine." And so he presents us "Shakespeare's Hamlet, a New Commentary" (Smith, Elder & Co.). He is of the opinion that he offers something "more or less new" on the source and nature of Hamlet's madness, on the Pyrrhus speech in Act II, Sc. ii, on the authorship of the sub-play (that it is all by Hamlet's hand and is not the Gonzago murder story), on Ophelia's character and her insanity, on the difference between "stage effect" and the "Shakespearean conception of dramatic effect." Mr. Trench, like most of his recent predecessors, feels that the distinctive feature of his exposition is its objectivity, its freedom from impressionistic conjecture. It is not likely that any other student of Hamlet will be impressed by his objectivity. To the writer of this note, for instance, his conception of Hamlet seems grounded less firmly on the facts of the play than that of Professor Bradley, his treatment of Ophelia occasionally suggestive but on the whole slanderous, and his theory of the authorship of the sub-play a mere "cranky" whim. If we had a volume at our disposal, we could set forth the reasons for the faith that is in us; we could explain to him that—"The rest is silence."

"Shakespeare and Stratford" (Little, Brown), a recent addition to the Literary Shrine series, by Henry C. Shelley, is a pleasantly written and well-made little book, which will be useful to tourists making a first visit to the Shakespearean country. It contains nothing new, of course, but offers a convenient, consecutive, and accurate epitome of the known facts and most of the legends relating to the poet, his family, and his neighbors. The author wisely refrains from theorizing on his own account and exhibits a judicious skepticism in dealing with the more or less plausible guesses of impressionable and credulous enthusiasts. He depends chiefly upon the researches of such qualified scholars as Halliwell-Phillipps and Sir Sidney Lee, and does not hesitate to quote the indisputable dates which prove that Shakespeare was not born in the cottage commonly revered as his birthplace, although he doubtless lived in it as child and youth. Of the authenticity of a good many of the so-called relics he disposes in curt and effective fashion, and he has some pertinent comments to make upon the petty and sordid commercialism, long a discredit to the town of Stratford, which is much more concerned about the extortion of the nimble sixpence than the glorification of the bard. It is well that a word of warning should be given to simple-minded pilgrims concerning the manifest fraudulency of the "mulberry tree" and other mementos of which the annual sale is enormous. That the original New Place mulberry may have been the actual property of Shakespeare is not unlikely, considering the slow growth of those trees and the great age to which they attain, but the last scrap of it must have been used up long ago. Of the early days and gradual development of Stratford Mr. Shelley, quoting freely from the writings of Irving, Hawthorne, and others, gives a full and interesting account, and he has a very pleasant and instructive chapter upon the Shakespeare villages, Charlecote, Hampton Lucy, Snitterfield, Wilmcote, and Shottery, plentifully illustrated with uncommonly artistic photographs of the buildings and spots most intimately associated with the poet and his connections. He has composed an admirable guide-book and has supplemented it with some notes for tourists which will well repay observation.

Sir Herbert Tree has formulated his plans for His Majesty's Theatre in London for some time ahead. To succeed "The Darling of the Gods" he has a dramatized version, by Norman MacOwan and Charlton Mann, of "The Blue Lagoon," the novel by H. de Vere Stacpoole, and a new drama by E. Temple Thurston, on the subject of "The Wandering Jew." He also has commissioned Louis N. Parker to make a new stage version of "David Copperfield," in which he

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proposes to double the parts of Daniel Peggotty and Wilkins Micawber. It may be doubted whether he has the ruggedness or sincerity for Peggotty, but he ought to be able to do something striking with Micawber.

At the London Vaudeville Theatre Norman McKinnel and Frederick Whelen are to produce a new four-act play, entitled "Mary Girl," by a woman dramatist, who makes her first venture on the West-end stage, Mrs. Leonard Merrick. Her heroine is a woman in humble life, married to a man of austere, though loving, disposition. The two live happily together, content with their portion in life. Then Mary is transported into a world of which she has but the dimmest consciousness, with the result that her views, her ambitions, her outlook upon existence are materially altered. Out of this situation spring various dramatic and interesting incidents. The parts of husband and wife are to be played by Norman McKinnel and May Blaney.

Oscar Asche and Lily Brayton, newly returned from Australia, will soon revive "Kismet" in London.

George Slythe Street, appointed examiner of plays in England, in the place of the late Charles Brookfield, has edited an edition of Congreve's plays, in a series of which the late W. E. Henley had the chief charge. He was one of the circle which included Kipling, Barrie, and Wells, and is himself an author of several books. Probably his best-known novel is "The Trials of the Bantocks," which appeared in 1900, but a more popular work is his "Ghosts of Piccadilly." Mr. Street is London born. He received his education at Charterhouse School before proceeding to Oxford. His only appearance as a playwright was at the Stage Society, which produced his comedy, "Great Friends," eight years ago. He has been a not infrequent contributor to reviews and magazines.

The production in Paris of "The Playboy of the Western World" by M. Lugné-Poë was marked by the utter discomfiture of the critics. Partly this was owing to the incapacity of the French language to reproduce Irish cadences. Pegeen Mike's despairing cry, "Oh, my grief, I have lost him surely! I have lost the only playboy of the Western world," was denatured into "Oh, douleur! Je ne le verrai plus jamais. Je ne verrai plus l'unique baladin du monde Occidental." The play was variously described as "an Irish Peer Gynt," and "a rural Bernard Shaw." Some critics found a close relation between Synge and Swift. But all united in condemning the wit as being uncongenial to the French temperament.

Prof. Rudolf Genee, who was best known in England and this country for his writings and lectures on Shakespeare, is dead in Berlin; he was in his ninetieth year. A graduate of the Gymnasium zum grauen Kloster and the Königliche Kunstakademie, he became in 1859 editor of the *Danziger Zeitung* and two years later of the *Koburger Zeitung*. His Shakespearean lectures took him to the principal university towns of Germany and were carried on from 1865 to 1887. But Shakespeare was his specialty, not the limit of his scholarly interests. He wrote on English mystery and morality plays, besides much on the contemporary German stage. He was the author of monographs on Goethe, Hans Sachs, A. W. Schlegel, Kleist, and Bismarck. His latest work on the great English dramatist is entitled "William Shakespeare in seinem Werden und Wesen." As a young man he himself was a dramatist of some promise.

Music

The Life of Ethelbert Nevin. By Vance Thompson. Boston: Boston Music Co. $2.75 net.

Vance Thompson believes that Ethelbert Nevin's place in the history of music is permanent; that his songs, "born of an impulse at once personal and mysterious, have the eternal youth of the world's folk-songs." In any case, few of the world's folk-songs have been sung more frequently than his "Rosary," and few piano pieces played oftener than his "Narcissus." In distant Algiers Nevin heard a young fellow whistling it. Street musicians ground it out everywhere. He himself continued playing this piece because the audiences demanded it, but he came to the point of referring to it in a letter as "that nasty little 'Narcissus.'" As for the "Rosary," a sentimental semi-religious song, dear to the public, Mme. Schumann-Heink has called it her favorite American song. She thinks it great because in it are "heart interest and beautiful melody." She has sung it numberless times, not only in the United States, but in Germany, where the public "went wild" over it, even though she presented it in English. Wherever she sings it, she and the whole audience are "swept along in artistic transport to that anguished cry for a happiness that has escaped us. A song like that, to make all hearts beat together, is a work of genius."

It isn't—but let that pass. Nevin himself knew he had written much better things—songs like those which Philip Hale praised as characterized by "spontaneity of melodic invention" and "subtleties of harmonization." Rupert Hughes, in his book on "Contemporary American Composers," went so far as to say that one of Nevin's songs, "Autumn Mood," which did not win immediate popularity, was to him "as great as the greatest of the Lieder of Schumann, Schubert, or Franz." In view of the fact that Nevin lived only thirty-eight years (he died in 1901), the list of his compositions is surprisingly large; it fills six pages of this volume, in which they are arranged according to the year of publication. Most of them are for solo voice with piano, or for piano alone; but there are also a few pieces for violin and piano, choruses for men's or mixed voices, and a cantata, which appears to have been his longest flight.

The biography prepared by Vance Thompson consists largely of extracts from Nevin's letters to his family, particularly to his mother; those to his wife were considered too intimate and most of them were destroyed before his death. She was to him a critic as well as a helpmeet; during the thirteen years of their married life she saved everything that bore the mark of his thumb-print, thus facilitating the biographer's task. Apart from the revelation which this book gives of the personality of one of America's most melodious and popular composers, it reminds one a little of Amy Fay's "Music Study in Germany" because of the vivid pictures it gives of the life of American students abroad. Before he went to Germany, Nevin studied in Boston, of the musical life in which town he also gives some account. His aim was to become a concert pianist, and although he was never in robust health, he worked ten to twelve hours a day. Often he despaired of reaching his goal. One day, after climbing Savin Hill and gazing at the boats and steamers below, he wrote to his mother: "I almost wished I could bury myself in one of the ships, away out in the deep, and give up all the toil and worry of trying to be an artist. Oh, how discouraged I am! I don't think I shall live to be great, and I don't see how I can live if I'm not."

It was his good fortune to have for his principal teacher B. J. Lang, who stood at the top of his profession in the Boston of that day. This eminent musician, of whose methods and activities Nevin gives interesting glimpses in his letters, soon discovered his pupil's exceptional gifts and gave him unusual opportunities. At first the master sometimes got angry with the pupil, but this was nothing to what Nevin had to endure when he went to Berlin and became a pupil of Wagner's great friend, Professor Klindworth. He used to meet the pupils of this celebrity coming from their lessons, "white with anger and tears streaming down their faces"; and from what he heard he expected the professor to fling busts of Beethoven at his head, or throw him out of the window. He was promptly informed he had "much to learn," was coldly criticised, and got no praise; but when he heard that Klindworth had told one of his pupils that he had an American named Nevin who was one of the most talented fellows he had ever seen and who was sure to make a stir in the musical world, he was consoled; and subsequently he realized that Klindworth's treatment had made him work harder than any other might have succeeded in doing. Two years he remained with this pedagogue, who gradually treated him with more consideration. He also studied with Hans von Bülow.

Returning to America he had a hard

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time trying to make his living as a teacher or a player. Pittsburgh welcomed him at his début as pianist, but subsequently ignored him when he needed to raise money by his playing to marry. Fortunately, his compositions began to sell, and thus he was able to give up his idea of becoming a travelling virtuoso. As a player he more and more confined himself to his own works. A critic who spoke of him as being, with MacDowell, one of the two leading American composers, declared that "MacDowell plays more like the devil" while "Nevin plays like a poet."

Failing health compelled him to make a trip to Algiers. In his earlier letters the reader follows him through his adventures in Florence, in and near Berlin, the Spreewald, Heidelberg, and Bayreuth. He worshipped Wagner, and much of his time was devoted to coaching singers in Wagnerian rôles. These and many other details are told in entertaining fashion by Mr. Thompson. His volume is adorned with a number of portraits and other pictures, and there are some pages of music by Nevin not heretofore printed.

The Vienna Royal Opera has paid over to Richard Wagner's heirs more than 1,000,000 crowns in royalties during the last thirty years. This makes an average of more than 33,000 crowns, or $6,600, annually paid to the Wagners from this one institution alone. From this an estimate can be made of the enormous income that Wagner's heirs have derived from the thousands of performances in all parts of Europe during these three decades.

The Philadelphia Orchestra, at its twelfth pair of concerts, played the funeral march from the "Eroica" symphony in memory of the late Dr. Weir Mitchell. The programme book printed also a poem on that distinguished citizen by Harvey M. Watts.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have made arrangements with Lilli Lehmann for the publication by them of a translation of her valuable and entertaining Memoirs. The translation is now in preparation by Mrs. George W. Seligman.

Elena Gerhardt, the famous lieder singer, is a great admirer of the songs of Eugen Haile, and she has put some of them on her programmes. Other singers would do well to follow her example, as these songs are far superior to many of those often sung, being modern yet melodious. And amateurs, by buying them, would help the composer, whose ill-health prevents him from earning his living.

Arnold Schoenberg, whose quartet in D minor will have its first public performance in this country by the Flonzaley Quartet, Monday evening, January 26, was born in Vienna, September 13, 1874. Now looked upon by some as a composer "whose every chord is the outcome of an emotion," he states it as his mission to free harmony from all rules. He once taught harmony in such academic institutions as Sterns Conservatory, Berlin, and the K. K. Akadamie für Musik, Vienna. As master-symbolist in music, he has, as Huneker says, "the courage of his chromatics." Concentration is the leading motive of all he does, and he has already accomplished much. Besides the Quartet in D minor, there is another, a string sextet, a symphonic poem, "Pelleas and Melisande," and a set of pieces for orchestra; choral works, piano pieces, and many songs. In 1910 he published a book on harmony which illustrates his theories.

Art

The collector, whether professional or amateur, will find in "Staffordshire Pottery and Its History" (McBride, Nast), by Josiah C. Wedgwood, much valuable and heretofore inaccessible information about the North Staffordshire potteries; yet the author has not aimed to produce a connoisseur's book. As honorable secretary of the William Salt Archæological Society, he dedicates his book "to my constituents who do the work," and he believes that it will be chiefly interesting to people to whom "the potbank and the shard ruck are as familiar and as full of old associations as the cow shed to the countryman or the nets along the links to the fishing population." He modestly hopes "that many students of history and sociology will find such a trade history as this of some value in their researches." They will. The book contains much to supplement such works as Cooke-Taylor's "The Modern Factory System" and Jonathan Thayer Lincoln's "The Factory System." Its tone is temperate and liberal. The Tory, truculently opposed to the present British Government's schemes of social reform, will find no comfort in this statement, anent a recent prohibition of the potter's right to poison his employees:

> When one remembers the intense hostility to this Home Office interference, it is curious to see how satisfactorily and easily the rules have worked out in practice. Potter's asthma is nearly extinct, and lead poisoning cases in the potteries have fallen from an average of 362 a year in the period 1896-8 to 93 a year over the years 1905-7. . . . The chief credit for this new departure should be attributed to William Owen, of the Potter's Union, and to the Duchess of Sutherland and Sir Charles Dilke.

The changes wrought by capitalism in a trade which began in the sixteenth century as a peasant industry, conducted in rude sheds in backyards, and which to-day is highly specialized, Mr. Wedgwood traces with wealth of illustrations and circum stantial detail. One suspects him of leaning backward in praising the work and character of competitors of his distinguished ancestors. While the narrative does not purport to be critical, it leaves the reader in no doubt as to the author's opinion of the periods of good taste and those of æsthetic decadence. The story of Methodism in the potteries is essential, for this influence, in the latter part of the eighteenth century, changed the potter's characteristic amusement from cock fighting to psalm singing. It affected the community's business life. "If you worked for Job Ridgway, you had to attend his chapel also." The potteries, like the textile towns, have had disturbances due to labor-saving machinery. Mr. Wedgwood, in opposition to a prevailing belief in the value of any and all machine production, asserts that "the pottery workers themselves have lost something through the introduction of machinery. The proportion of women and young persons employed in the industry is double what it was in 1850, and the work of married women is not good for the rest of the people."

"Hans Holbein the Younger," by Arthur B. Chamberlain, scrupulously sets down whatever is known about the great portraitist. This involves an enormous amount of detail and of incidental history. The work has been done painstakingly and accurately. Numerous appendices and an excellent index stamp the work as a scholar's book. It would be idle to remark that narrative ease and criticism are not to be expected. In such regards the treatment is merely adequate. Kenyon Cox's capital essay would have explained the surprising archaisms of Holbein's English manner. Mr. Chamberlain brings a judicial mind to the main problems of connoisseurship and biography. He inclines to think the little Madonna of 1514 at Basel an Ambrosius Holbein. Against many critics, he holds the famous Windsor chalk portraits to be relatively intact. The Nostell Priory version of Sir Thomas More's family he takes to be a badly garbled original, of which the face of More and the composition are Holbein's, the execution generally that of an inferior follower. Naturally, Mr. Chamberlain makes light of the romance of Magdalena Offenburg, the model for the Venus and the Lais Corinthica. Since he discusses contemporary British portraiture at length, he might well have included the Cranmer of the Metropolitan Museum, which until quite recently bore Holbein's name. Towards the Lady Lee of the Altman collection Mr. Chamberlain is noncommittal. We agree with Roger E. Fry that it is very difficult to see the actual workmanship of Holbein in this admirable portrait. Mr. Chamberlain's book immediately becomes the standard source of reference. While the appeal is chiefly to scholars, the handsome printing and excellent illustrations, many in colors, of the two folios should eminently qualify them for a gentleman's library. The manufacture is English, the publisher Dodd, Mead & Co., the price sixteen dollars net.

"Forty-three Drawings by Alastair" (Lane) is published in a choicely made folio at $12, the edition being limited. Robert Ross contributes what he calls an "exclamation point." Without this title it would be hard to tell it from the usual laudatory preface. The young cosmopolitan draughtsman Alastair—he is said to have French, English, and Spanish blood, and he certainly lives in Germany—is in many ways a reincarnation of Beardsley. He has the same exquisite sense of spotting and placing, the same piquant juxtaposition of bold blots and minutely penned patterns; and withal a very similar morbid imagination. The most powerful study in the album is the portrait of Signora Duse, a masterpiece of the overstrained sort. Without exception, the work is inspired by a curious and revolting pruriency, and the technical merits which we have in justice noted by no means redeem the essential filthiness of the things expressed.

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No tourist with a grain of artistic sensitiveness can travel through rural England without being impressed by the subtle charm of the domestic architecture of that land of homes. The source of the impression is not always consciously perceived, for many of these homes, set back from the highways and embowered in trees, are so integral a part of the landscape that one does not readily dissociate them from their surroundings. Apart from the unpretentious straightforwardness of their design and the pleasing proportions of gables, wings, and roofs, their chief merit consists very largely in this oneness with their environment; and this in turn is due in large measure to the fact that they are built of the local materials, so that their style and aspect vary from one district to another with the geology and topography of the district. The contrast with modern American practice is striking in this respect, for the materials for our houses are brought from "all over," and style and design depend much more on the individual taste of owner and architect than on the kinds of stone and timber found in the vicinity. American architects are beginning to appreciate and to study English models in the effort to discover the secret of their charm and to impart something of the same quality to their own designs. The multiplication of books by English writers in this field has by no means yet exhausted the subject, and such an addition to the list as Louis Ambler's "The Old Halls and Manor Houses of Yorkshire" (Scribner) is sure to be cordially welcomed on this side of the ocean as well as on the other.

Finance

"BUSINESS" AND THE GOVERNMENT.

Last Tuesday's address by the President to Congress, on the Administration's programme for new company legislation was not only almost the single topic of this week's financial discussion, but may be described as the objective point towards which the markets have for six weeks past been moving. As defined on Tuesday, Mr. Wilson's proposals differed in no essential regard from the forecasts which had been freely sent out from Washington during the week preceding. By themselves they are fairly drastic. If proposed in the earlier stages of the Anti-Trust controversy, they would surely have occasioned great uneasiness in financial and business circles. Yet definite reports of this new policy have been accompanied by the almost continuous six weeks' rise on the Stock Exchange, by the turn for the better in general business, and by a rise in prices, after brief hesitation, even when the text of the message had been read. In part, this altered attitude is certainly explained by the reasonable and conciliatory attitude taken by the President and his law officers in recent dissolutions, and by the distinct assurance of this week's message that the Administration's purpose is "not to unsettle business or break its established courses. But the financial community's attitude also has some relation to the underlying soundness of the financial position itself, when the new proposals were set forth.

It would be a pretty subject of debate, whether the Administration at Washington is more fortunate in the rising stock market, because the rise throws a glamour of popularity over its policy towards business, or the stock market more fortunate in the Administration's policy, because that gives a concrete and continuing explanation for the rise in prices. Whichever view is taken, the Wilson Administration's good fortune must be admitted. There have been times when the Stock Exchange, with the best intentions, could scarcely have given this week's cordial response to the series of announcements. A surrender of recalcitrant corporations to the Government, announced when financial affairs were as deranged as they were in the summer of 1903 or the autumn of 1907, would either have fallen flat, so far as concerned the judgment of the financial community at large, or else, more probably, would have been denounced as the cause of all the trouble.

The extent to which a rising stock market, and the trade revival which is apt to accompany it, help the party in power and its leaders, is an old story. It has caused interesting conjectures as to the probable course of political history on certain occasions, if Prosperity, and its index in the Stock Exchange, had not moved as they did. Supposing that the Harrison Administration had ended on March 4 of 1895 instead of 1893; that the great panic of the last-named year had therefore occurred in the same Presidential term as the legislation of which it was partly the fruit, and that Cleveland's second term had then begun when the sudden business recovery of 1895 was under way—how many things in politics might not have happened which now stand on the records? Or if McKinley had taken office in 1894 instead of 1897—thus starting in a year of disastrous and unavoidable liquidation—would a Dingley high-tariff law have won the same place in popular tradition as the Wilson low-tariff law actually did, or not?

So far as regards the present, it would not be wholly easy to determine just how much of the better feeling (and of the rise on the Stock Exchange) is directly attributable to the new relations between the Government and the companies. Certainly not all of it is; and yet some part of it must be. Cause and effect are inextricably mixed in all such matters. This much may be said without hesitation—that the mere prospect of somehow removing most of the uncertainties which have so long surrounded the question of the "Anti-Trust suits" was bound to be welcomed in financial circles.

Even people who recognized that there was no way to check the monstrous tendencies of 1901 but by invoking the full sweep of the Anti-Trust law, and even people who cordially approved the forcible dismemberment of the Northern Securities and the Standard Oil and the American Tobacco, had nevertheless to admit that a mass of chaotic possibilities was left. How the law would thereafter be applied, where it would be applied, to whom it would be applied, were questions which nobody could answer confidently. There were a dozen different schools of interpretation. A spirit of uneasiness in conservative circles, and a spirit of wild suggestion in radical circles, were the inevitable result of such conditions.

We are presently to see, no doubt, how far the recent striking events in the field of government and Big Business have actually pointed the remedy. It will be said on the one hand that voluntary dissolution of a powerful company is no more favorable an outcome, so far as regards the enterprise itself, than compulsory dissolution after suit. But, on the other hand, it will certainly be suggested that, if the great combinations break themselves apart with so little inconvenience, disturbance, loss of usefulness, or sacrifice of intrinsic value, as officers of the New Haven Railway and the Telephone combination have professed in the case of their own dissolutions, then the terrors of the Anti-Trust law, as applied to all the rank growth of the eight short years which began in 1899 and ended in 1906, must have been strangely exaggerated.

The public has had its fill of argument on the other side. For years it has heard how such mammoth combinations as these were "suited to the spirit of the age," how only through them could we "hold our place in world-competition," and how, if we were to give them up, we should "revert to the business methods of fifty years ago." Since most of the same public was alive and capable of observation as long ago as 1899, it has always taken this reasoning at an easy valuation. But it would none the less be enormously relieved to have the weight of constant unsettlement and uncertainty in some degree removed. No doubt the Stock Exchange has reflected such a feeling.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, N. B. Industrial Studies—Europe. Boston: Ginn. 80 cents.

Caldwell, Robert. Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian or South-Indian Family of Languages. Third edition, revised and edited by J. L. Wyatt and T. R. Pillai. $4 net.

Carus, Paul. Nietzsche. Chicago: Open Court Pub. Co. $1.25 net.

Chesterton, G. K. The Flying Inn. Lane. $1.30 net.

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Doon, E L. Joan's Green Year. Macmillan. $1.50.
Dostoevsky, Fyodor. The Possessed: A Novel in Three Parts. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics. Edited by James Hastings. Vol VI, Fiction-Hyksos. Scribner.
Eucken, Rudolf. Knowledge and Life. Trans. by W. T. Jones. Putnam.
Ford, Sewell. On with Torchy. E. J. Clode. $1.25 net.
Foster, R. F. Royal Auction Bridge with Nullos. Stokes. $1.20 net.
Frazer's Golden Bough. 2 vols. Macmillan. $5.
Gillette, J. M. The Family and Society. Chicago: McClurg. 50 cents net.
Graves, F. P. A History of Education in Modern Times. Macmillan. $1.10.
Grey, Zane. The Light of Western Stars. Harper. $1.35 net.
Gurney, L. M. Things Mother Used to Make. Macmillan. 50 cents net.
Hamel, Frank. Lady Hester Lucy Stanhope. Cassell.
Hartley, C. G. (Mrs. W. M. Gallichan.) Women and Morality. Chicago: The Laurentian Publishers. $1 net.
Hartman, L. F. The White Sapphire. Harper. $1.25 net.
Haughton, James. The Holy Spirit and the Prayer-Book. Second edition. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Hengelmüller, Ladislas. Hungary's Fight for National Existence. Macmillan. $3.25.
Holmes, Edmond. The Tragedy of Education. Dutton. $1 net.
Howard, Clare. English Travellers of the Renaissance. Lane. $2.50 net.
Innes, A. D. A History of England and the British Empire (four vols.). Vol. II, 1485-1688. Macmillan. $1.60.
International Studio, Special Number. The Great Painter-Etchers from Rembrandt to Whistler, by M. C. Salaman. Lane. $3 net.
Jackson, H. L. The Eschatology of Jesus. Macmillan. $1.50.
Is There a Hell? A Symposium by Leaders of Religious Thought. Funk & Wagnalls. 60 cents net.
Jackson, Holbrook. The Eighteen Nineties: A Review of Art and Ideas. Kennerley. $3.50 net.
Keltie, J. S., and Howarth, O. J. R. History of Geography. Putnam. 75 cents net.
Kenyon, Charles. Kindling: A Comedy Drama. Doubleday, Page. 75 cents net.
King's College Lectures on Colonial Problems, edited by F. J. C. Hearnshaw. Macmillan. $1.40.
Kinne, Helen, and Cooley, A. M. Foods and Household Management. Macmillan. $1.10.
Kuhn, Albert. Roma. Part II. Benziger Bros. 35 cents.
Kluchevsky, V. O. A History of Russia. Vol. III. Trans. by C. J. Hogarth. Dutton. $2.50 net
Lagerlöf, Selma. Liliecrona's Home: A Novel. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Laidler, H. W Boycotts and the Labor Struggle. Lane. $2 net.
Library of Business Practice. Vol. I, Business Management. Index. Chicago: A. W. Shaw Co.
Loeb, Morris. Scientific Work, edited by T. W. Richards. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press. $2 net.
Lynch, Charles. American Red Cross Abridged Text-book on First Aid. Miners' Edition, Police and Firemen's, Railroad, Woman's. Philadelphia: Blakiston. 30 cents each.
Mâle, Emile. Religious Art in France of the Thirteenth Century. Translated by Dora Nussey. Third edition revised and enlarged. Dutton. $6 net.
Manucci, Niccolao. A Pepys of Mogul India, 1653-1708: Being an Abridged Edition of the "Storia do Mogor." Trans. by W. Irvine; abridged edition by M. L. Irvine. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Mapes, C. H. Some Other Things. Putnam.
Mead, G. R. S. Quests Old and New. Macmillan. $2.25.
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Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education. Vol. V, Pol-Zwi. Macmillan. $5.
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Notestein, L. L., and Dunn, W. H. Modern Short-Story. A. S. Barnes C
Pankhurst, Christabel. Plain Facts a a Great Evil. Sociological Fund of Medical Review of Reviews. $1.
Property: Its Duties and Rights. Essa by various writers, with an introductio by the Bishop of Oxford. Macmillan.
Purdom, C. B. The Garden City. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Quintana, D. M. J. La Vida de Vasco Núñez de Balboa. Edited with notes by G. G. Brownell. Boston: Ginn. 65 cents.
Rogers, W. T. Dictionary of Abbreviations. Macmillan. $2.
Royal Belfast Academical Institution. Centenary Volume. Belfast: M'Caw, Stevenson & Orr.
Salaman, Malcolm C. French Colour-Prints of the XVIIIth Century. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $12 net.
Shore, W. T. John Woolman, His Life and Our Times. Macmillan. $1.50.
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Treves, Frederick. The Country of "The Ring and the Book." Cassell.
United States Geological Survey: Mineral Resources of the U. S. Calendar Year 1912, Part II—Nonmetals. Washington.
Usher, A. P. History of the Grain Trade in France, 1400-1710. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press. $2 net.
Vale, Charles. John Ward, M.D. Mitchell Kennerley. $1.25 net.
Wallace, A. R. The Revolt of Democracy. Funk & Wagnalls. $1 net.
Ward, F. E. The Montessori Method and the American School. Macmillan. $1.25.
Ward, Mrs. Wilfrid. Horace Blake. Putman. $1.35 net.
Wilby, T. W. A Motor Tour Through Canada. Lane. $1.50 net.

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